



**THE PROBLEM OF CHILD LABOUR IN DARI
INDUSTRY : A CASE STUDY OF
SITAPUR DISTRICT (U.P.)**

ABSTRACT

OF THE

THESIS

SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

Doctor of Philosophy

IN

SOCIOLOGY

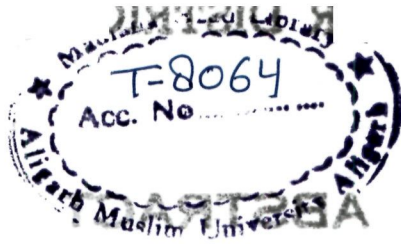
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ABSTRACT

A child is the most precious and valuable gift of God to man. The future of a family as well as the country directly depends upon how well its children are looked after. Children should be considered as the centre of love and source of pleasure for the parents and, at the same time a valuable asset. A child is supposed to have a moral obligation to provide for the parents in their old age. But the parents also have some of the moral obligation to the child.

Children are considered the future citizens of our country. A country can progress only when it is internally and externally strong. We can only be strong when the children of our country are well educated and are full of vigour and enthusiasm. But using children as labour will spoil the future of our country. Children should be sent to school. But instead of that, if they are asked to work under in-human conditions for long hours in factories, we are doing injustice to them.

The objectives of the study are :

1. To identify those households which supply their child labour.
2. To study the socio-economic and family background of the child labour in dari making industry.
3. To explore the working conditions of child labour.
4. To explore the causes of child labour.
5. To make a detailed study of child labour in dari industry.
6. Finally to suggest measures for ameliorating the lot of child labour.

The first chapter of the thesis 'Introduction' discusses the nature of the problem of child labour, its definition as given by various sociologists, social as well as non-governmental organizations etc. From among all the controversial definitions of child labour that are prevalent, an attempt has been made to arrive at a clear definition of child labour, and to demarcate it from child work.

Also this chapter discusses the extent of child labour prevalent in India as per the statistics and data provided by the Government of India, International Labour Organisation, Non-government Organisations and various researchers. The issues of industrial and agricultural child labour have also been discussed in detail. The Government of India estimates that there are 2 million children working in hazardous industries, and nearly two-thirds of the total child-labour force works in the agricultural sector. In the 2004-2005 National Sample Survey, it was estimated that around 5.6 million children work in agriculture sector of which 2.75 millions are girls. In addition to this, child labour in industries like carpets, locks, beedi and glass bangles, where exploitation both in terms of wages as well as working hours exist, have been taken up for study in this chapter.

Child labour is a very sensitive issue, but as such, is always discussed in literary debates and councils, only, far away from the people who are actually affected by it is actually this population which is taken into consideration for such national and international debates, that should be sensitized and mobilized about their own rights and conditions, every child must be made aware of his/her rights, that he/she can question his exploitation.

It is a widely perceived factor that poverty is the main cause of child labour in India, but there are many other factors which are equally responsible. It is also often argued that socio-cultural and traditional reasons are responsible for children getting engaged in work, but if there is a culture of child work, then economic conditions of a child family has nothing to do with the existence of child labour. The government of India lays emphasis on elementary education and its expansion; and this is included in the five year plans as 'national programme of minimum needs'.

The definition and child labour and its abolition itself is involved in controversies. There are two schools of thoughts regarding controversy.

The first school of thought emphasizes on the children getting enrolled in educational institutions despite financial constraints. This thought finds the support of Neera Burra, Shanta Sinha, Pramila Bhargava, Cini Asha etc. The supporters of the second lobby argue that since the earning of a child is necessary for the subsistence of the family because of its poor economic conditions, the conditions of work and wages systems should be regulated rather than forcing the children to get enrolled in educational institutions. The supporters of this lobby are Susan Bisell, Kaushik Basu and N. Vaun.

The chapter also discusses the profile of *dari* (cotton carpet) making which is the crux of discussion in here. The previous and present status of the industry has been discussed, along with the percentage of the participation of the Ansari's in various stages of the dari making industry.

To attain an insightful account into the prevalent situation of child labour, important literature consisting of books, articles, periodicals,

magazines, journals and other published and unpublished resources have been taken up. The Review of Literature is an important step of research work which enables the researcher to understand and frame original research problems.

In this thesis, the Review of Literature is divided into two parts. In the first part, the studies pertaining to the abolition of child labour have been discussed depending upon the schools of thought to which various sociologists belong. The second section deals with the studies related to the protection and improvement of the conditions of the child labours.

The present study is primarily based on qualitative research techniques. The purpose of this approach is to offer an insightful analysis of the multidimensional problem of child labour. To identify the exact attitudes and values of people, qualitative methodology is adopted which is apparent over quantitative methodology. Data collected through case studies, participant observation and interviews are supplemented with quantitative data from census and commission reports.

In this study, one hundred fifty people were interviewed and seven cases have been selected for the purpose of study to acquire an indepth information covering socio-economic aspect of the life of the respondent. District Sitapur has been chosen as the locale (universe) of the research area. From this, Khairbad, Laharpur, Chilwara, Parendipurwa and proper Sitapur were chosen for the study, as these areas had a high concentration of child labour engaged in the carpet industry.

A two stage sampling process has been employed in the study. In the first stage pockets having high concentration of child labour in the carpet

industry have been chosen on the basis of purposive sampling to make samples more representative. In the second stage ordinary random sampling was carried onto choose the respondents from the selected areas. Both types of sources of data collection have been used in the study – primary as well as secondary.

The second chapter deals with the setting of the study, various features of the research area (Sitapur) and its place in the economic scenario of Uttar Pradesh.

Sitapur was established by King Vikramaditya who named it after Lord Rama's wife, Sita. Here, there is the Vamisharraya on Neemsen which plays a pivotal role in the Panch Dhram yatra of Hindus. Sitapur has contributed variously in social, historical, political and literary fields. It played an important role in the freedom struggle of the nation. Very recently, Captain Manoj Pandey from Sitapur, gave his life in the Kargil war in 1999, for which he was honoured with the *Param Veer Chakra*. The district is renowned for its Eye Hospital.

Ilasiya Park, Mahavir Park, Sarojini Vatika are the main gardens of the city while the important monments of the city are Vardehi Vatika, Shaheed Captain Manoj Pandey Monument, and Shaurya Stambh. The district is famous for its *dari* (cotton carpet) industry.

The total population of the district according to 2001 census is 36,19,661 persons, comprising 19,41,374 males and 12,78,287 females. The rural population of the district is 81,86,973 persons of which there are 17,14,279 males and 14,72,694 females; and the urban population is 4,32,688 persons comprising 2,07,095 males and 2,05,593 females.

The scheduled castes population of the district as per 2001 census is 11,53,626 persons comprising 6,19,501 males and 5,43,125 females.

The literate population of the district according to 2001 census is 14,04,443 persons; of these 9,43,222 are males and 4,61,221 are females. In the rural areas of the district, 11,63,041 persons (8,04,072 males and 3,58,969 females) are literate.

Inspite of an increasing trend in education from 1991-2001, the district is still educationally backward. 83 per cent population of the district depends upon agriculture for its subsistence.

Sitapur district is a part of the Lucknow division of Uttar Pradesh and is a part of Gomti-Ghaghra Doab belt lying between latitude 27°6' and 27°54' and longitude 80°18' and 81°24'. It is roughly a parallelogram and is approximately fifty miles from North to south and seventy miles from East to West. The area of the district, on the basis of the district records of tahsil area is 2,207 square miles or 14,1248 acres and according to the survey of India it is 2,208 square miles.

The chief rivers of the district are the *Gomti* the *Sharda* or *Chauka* and the *Ghaghra*.

No official description is to be found regarding the district's name; Chhatyapur or Chhityapur was the older name of the town in the reign of Akbar. King Vikramaditya named this city Sitapur in the in the memory of Sita, and it is believed that Sita stayed with Rama at Sitapur during a pilgrimage. Lava and Kusha came here along with age Valmiki when Rama performed the Ashvamedhna yojna after the exile of Sita. Lord Rama and Sita

washed the stigma of Ravan's death of this place, and it is also assumed that Sita proved her purity and assimilated in the holy soil here. Maharishi Ved Vyas created purans in this holy land of Neemsar.

Khairabad Sirkar of Sitapur had twenty four mahals in 1720 A.D. According to Khulasatul tawarikh and chahar Gulshan, 'KERRIABAUDS' was a name given to Khairabad by English traders. Khairabad was an important trading centre in the days of Aurangzeb and Shahjahan. Cotton goods and cotton textiles were manufactured and sent to different parts of India and even abroad. Sitapur's participation in the struggle of 1857-58 was notable. When Gandhiji's non-cooperation movement was launched in 1921, many people from Sitapur participated and fifty nine people sent to jail. Sitapur also responded characteristically to the "Quit India" resolution of the Bombay session of the Congress of august 8, 1942.

The district presently consists of six tahsils and nineteen community development blocks. It has eleven towns and two thousand three hundred forty eight villages. There are four degree colleges with two faculty of arts, one faculty of commerce and one faculty of science at present Higher secondary, middle and primary schools re to be found in all the towns. Twenty nine villages in Sitapur district have hospitals. The district is mainly dependent on agriculture and 83 per cent population primarily depends upon it for its livelihood.

The average cultivated area is 10,64,454 acres. *Sharda* canal facilitates irrigation to the district and tube wells have proved to be very successful in the western part of Sitapur; but the district mostly relies on canal irrigation. *Rabi*,

kharif and *zaid* are the main harvest of the district. Rice is the most important *kharif* crop, which covers an area of 2,58,063 acres. The chief vegetables produced are potato, sweet potato, onion, tomato, cauliflower, cabbage, lady-finger, turmeric, ginger, chilli etc. and the main fruits grown are mango, papaya, banana, jack fruit, berry and water melon.

Vehicles normally used for transportation are cycles, rickshaws, tongas and bicycles. Passengers use buses and trains for long distance travel. There are two branch lines of Northern Railway here.

Four principle castes namely Brahmins, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudras reside in the district. Marriage is a sacrament among Hindus. In spite of variation in the rites and ceremonies different kanyadan and saptapadi are essential steps following in the marriage rituals.

Muslims live in the vicinity of the old towns and are most numerous in tahsils. About 97.7 per cent of the total population of the Muslims are sunnis and the rest are shias. Marriage is a contract among Muslims and the mehar is always fixed before marriage. Rituals regarding birth and childhood are observed according to Islamic tenets.

Christians and Jains are very few in number and they do perform all the duties according to their religious norms.

In the third chapter the organization of the *dari* (cotton carpet) industry in Sitapur district is discussed, from the organization to the production state. From field study it has been noted that Ansari's dominate this industry here. They are factory owners and are involved in production stage as weavers, middlemen suppliers, dyeing of yarns, mounting of threads on wheels. In all of

this, child labour is mainly involved in knotting and dipping. First of all factory owners purchase yarn from the yarn suppliers. Because of direct links with the yarn suppliers purchases are made directly. Yarn is purchased from Panipat, Maharashtra, Delhi and Kanpur through the involvement of the yarn agents.

During its manufacturing a *dari* passes through different stages, each made possible by the contribution of different sets of employees like distributors, suppliers, weavers, knotters and some permanent employees of the factory. Child labour also plays an important role in the manufacturing of daries. In the process of manufacturing a *dari*, firstly yarn is dyed in the prescribed colours given by the clients. Dyeing of yarn is done both manually and by machines. Isole free chemical are used because izole is harmful to skin and may cause a number of skin problems. When the orders are placed, a stringent check is made of the chemicals used in the dye. If there is any shortcoming the orders stand cancelled and a new yarn supplier is looked for. After dyeing the yarn is mounted on wheels and this work is usually handed by women. After mounting the threads on wheels, the loom is mounted. The loom is made by the carpenter with the help of iron and wood attachment. The yarn that is fixed on to the loom rods is known as the '*reet*' and that which is hand held is known as the '*peek*'. Weaving needs utmost concentration and skill. Usually weavers weave upto a maximum length of 48" x 72" x 80" size *dari*; and if the order for a bigger *dari* is made, a bigger loom has to be constructed; and on such looms two weavers work at a time. Weaving, knotting and clipping are handed by child labours. After the knotting and clipping the *daris* are

returned to the factory and there they are classified and packed, and sent to their required destination by road, railway and sometimes even by air.

Generally, *dari* (cotton carpet) weaving is done in the interior areas of the district. This industry is of an unorganized nature; bulk of the employees don't have direct relations with the employer, they only know middlemen/suppliers. Being of an unorganized nature there is a lack of unions which handle employees issues. While the condition of the employees who work in the factory are the better the ones. Employers provide factory workers almost every possible facility.

The *dari* making industry is basically a home based industry. Suppliers from Sitapur, Khairabad and Laharpur generally put up their own looms on their own land, or rent it. The weavers are paid on the basis of per square feet of woven *dari*, knotters are paid on the basis of the number of knots, and the workers involved in mounting threads on wheels are paid on the basis of number of threads mounted. Both skilled and unskilled labours are involved in the production. Home based units have poor working conditions. Houses are small and made of mud with thatched roofs or plastic sheets; while factories are clean with hygienic environment, facilities for fresh drinking water, toilets and lunch rooms. There is no uniform payment structure in the *dari* industry: piece rate system prevalent in the home based unit while in the factory based units workers get fixed salary and a certain amount of it is deducted and transferred into their account in the form of provident fund. The working hours are adjusted according to the season. In home based units working hours are adjusted according to the workload but in factory unit the working hours are 9

am – 6 pm in summer with one hour lunch break and 10 am – 5 pm with half an hour lunch break in winter. After the completion of dari, its retailing starts. Saturday, Monday and Wednesday are the market days. People sell their daries at dari mandi (cotton carpet market) situated in Greekganj of proper Sitapur. Businessmen from Rajasthan, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Kashmir and other areas of Uttar Pradesh come to buy these daris. Export order is acquired with the help of the clients of Panipat and so on. Except Rafeeq Ansari's factory which has direct relations with the exporters, most manufacturers operate through middlemen.

The fourth chapter discusses the socio-economic profile of the factory owners and child labours. It has been observed that Ansari's contribute 40 per cent of the total Muslim population of the district, and 90 per cent of these are involved in *dari (cotton carpet)* making in one way or the other. First of all, a study was made of the socio-economic profile of factory owners. The average family size of the respondent is seven in members. Very few have four five members. Most of them (80 per cent) are first generation businessmen, while only around 20 per cent have inherited the business. 75 per cent of the respondents are in the age group of 40-50 years, only 25 pr cent of the population came from the age group of 26-40 year. The average marriageable age here is 25-30 years for males and 18-24 years for females. Most of the factory owners live concentrated in old Sitapur. They live in lavish houses having all luxuries of life. Most of the housing establishment of joint family status. At present health gets its due attention by the factory owners. They are a ware of and concerned about their children and their own health, and consult experienced doctors if problem occur. Only 25 per cent of the respondents have

successfully completed their education, rest of them either have never been to school or have dropped out because of some reasons. Previously the economic-status of the respondent was not so sound but they worked hard to improve. They took loans and mortgaged their property, and established professional relations to expand their business. Therefore at present the economic status of the respondent is very strong.

The socio-economic status of the child labour were not good at all. Ansaris constitute about 70 per cent of the child labour populations and the rest 30 per cent come from the castes of washermen, butchers, barbers and oil pressers. The entry level age for child labours into the work force is 9-14 years. 60 per cent of them were involved in dari making industry while 40 per cent of them were engaged in embroidery works, agriculture, rickshaw pulling. 80 per cent of the child labours live in kuchha house, 15 per cent live in semi-pucca, only 5 per cent live in puca houses. 70 per cent householders lived in their ancestral home, 10 per cent of the household were set up by purchasing land, 20 per cent of the workers were found living in rented house.

The enrolment ratio in school increased by 30 per cent in the past few years but literacy rate has shown no rise, the drop out rate begins from the first class itself, only 10-15 per cent manage to complete fifth standard. Female education is quite low as compared to males. Only 20 per cent of girls join school and hardly 5 per cent girls complete their education upto fifth standard. 95 per cent of the population were aware of the vaccination but they gave little importance to immunization; they were of the view that inspite of not being immunized they were leading healthy lives. When asked about oral polio

vaccines, they responded that it would affect the fertility of their children (this was found to be a common myth harbored by the illiterates, especially the Muslims).

In Sitapur dari (cotton carpet) making industry is the major employment provider. About 40 per cent of people are engaged in the dari making industry, while the rest are employed in embroidery work, agriculture and in dhabas and hotels. Majority of the workers are not directly recruited by the factory owners; or suppliers are responsible for their employment. Infact weavers and knotters themselves contact middlemen or supplier, because the more they and their children work, the more they will earn. Children are mainly involved in knotting and clipping. They get paid according to the number of knots they tie. The average income of the children varies monthly from Rs. 600 to 650. Wages are usually collected by their parents from the employer. Majority of the respondents did not have land except those whose houses were built and left to them by their forefathers.

In the fifth chapter, factors responsible for child labour, social, economic and cultural aspect of child labour have been discussed. Illiterate parents discourage children to attend schools because they lack the awareness of the merits of education. Female education is found too low, there hardly as found a female who had completed her education upto primary level. Since parents don't consider child labour bad, they can be directly held responsible for the ill effects suffered by them. Because of excessive number of children, issues such as health, education, social activities etc. are not paid attention to.

Improper implementation of compulsory primary education and poor education are also very much responsible for child labour. A large family size is also much responsible for child labour, because parents consider their children as an asset rather than their liability. Majority of the families are engaged in the daily wage system. Low income is a factor which is responsible for a number of hardships faced by families, and majority of the families live in miserable conditions. Adult unemployment, insufficient incomes of adults and lack of resources of subsistence promotes child labour.

Some myths like tradition of learning family craft are present. Also it is believed that a child labour's family will face starvation, if they stop working. Parents are least concerned about the ill effects of child labour. Increasing employment opportunities in unorganised sector, ineffective enforcement of legal provisions, and employer's preference for child labour because of low wages and'; lack of strong sense of responsibility of government officials, and political leaders are the factors which perpetuates child labour.

In the sixth chapter of the thesis, that is national and International initiatives for the elimination of child labour, various governmental legislation/policies and its implication to abolish child labour, UNICEF's and international labour organizations and non-governmental organizations efforts to eradicate child labour are discussed in detail in the chapter.

The conclusion of the study is drawn in chapter seven of the thesis.

The findings of this study are :

- Lack of awareness among parents of child labour is the major factor responsible for keeping the children from joining school on a regular basis.
- Due to the government schemes of scholarships and distribution of cereals, enrolment ratio has increased, but the literacy rate has not increased so far, because children did not attend school regularly.
- Mid-day meals and scholarships are not implemented properly for the enhancement of education. To obtain these facility, 70 per cent attendance is required, hardly 30-35 per cent students attend schools regularly. But on the days approaching the day of distribution of cereals and scholarships, the attendance rises considerably. The teachers do raise objections but usually relax the rules on the request of the parents of the students.
- Improper implementation of compulsory primary education have been observed in the research area, teachers themselves were not interested in teaching these students, because these children ultimately have to earn and work.
- Because of lack of proper requisite qualification and training, the teachers are unable to develop communication skills and cannot interact with students properly.
- A large family is one of the determinant factor of child labour in research, area, because parents consider their children as an economic assets rather than responsibility.
- Poor parents send their children because of financial constraints.

- Adults faces unemployment due to non-availability of work, not because of replacement of child labour, because in *dari* industry different type of work are performed by different ages.
- *Dari* (cotton carpet) industry provides lot of employment opportunities to the people residing in the dominant areas of *dari (cotton carpet)* making industry.



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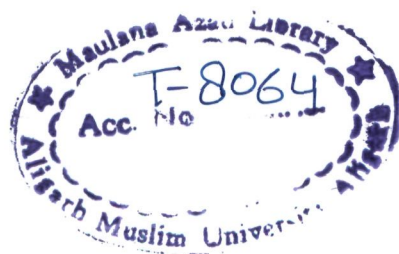
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Dedicated to
My
Everloving Grandfather

Dr. S. Zainuddin

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Certificate

This is to certify that Ph.D. thesis entitled, **“The Problem of Child Labour in Dari Industry: A Case Study of Sitapur District (U.P.)”** submitted by **Shabina Mustafa** under my supervision. This thesis is the original work of the researcher and is suitable for submission for the award of Ph.D. degree in Sociology.

(S. Zainuddin)
Supervisor

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Chapter – 1

INTRODUCTION

“Only as we move closer to realizing the rights of all children, will countries move closer to their goals of development and peace”

Kofi A. Annan, Secretary General of U.N.

The Millennium Declaration, adopted in 2000 by all countries (including India) as a blue print for building a better world in the 21st century was a landmark document. It captured the aspirations of the International community for a world united by common values, striving to achieve peace and a decent standard of living for every man, woman and child; an effort to build a world in which all children are healthy, protected from harm and surrounded by loving and nurturing adults who help them grow and develop to their full potentials (UNICEF Report, 2005).

A child is the most precious and valuable gift of God to man. The future of a family as well as the country directly depends upon how well its children are looked after. Children should be considered as the centre of love and source of pleasure for the parents and, at the same time, a valuable asset. A child is supposed to have a moral obligation to provide for the parents in their old age. But the parents also have some sort of moral obligation to the child.

The child being the family's future's hope, determines the kind of status, the family would acquire in the future course of time.

A healthy child is an essential requirement for a healthy nation, because children are the nation's builders. Once, Pandit Nehru remarked: but somehow the fact that ultimately everything depends the human factor gets lost ... in our thinking of plans and schemes of national development in terms of factories

and machinery and general schemes. It is all very important that we must have them, but ultimately of course it is the human being that counts and if the human being counts well, he counts much more as a child than as a grown up (Gangrade & Gathia, 1983).

Justice P.N. Bhagwati, former Chief Justice of India defined child as,

“A soul with a being, a nature and capacities of its own, who must be helped to find them, to grow into their maturity, into a fullness of physical and vital energy and the utmost breadth, depth and height of its emotional, intellectual and spiritual being; otherwise there cannot be a healthy growth of the nation” (V.V.G.N.L.I, 2003).

Child labour has been defined in various ways by various thinkers and organizations.

Homes Fold, the chairman of the United States National Child labour committee defined child labour as “... any work by children that interferes with their full physical developments, their opportunities for a desirable minimum of education, or their needed recreation” (quoted in Labour Problems in America).

According to the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences (1959), “when the business of wage earning or of participation in itself or family support conflicts directly or indirectly with the business of growth and education, the result is child labour”.

International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour as “children prematurely leading adult lives, working long hours for low wages, under conditions damaging to their health and to their physical and mental development, sometimes separated from their families, frequently deprived of

meaningful educational and training opportunities that could open up, for them, a better future (V.V.G.N.L.I, 2003).

1.1 Differentiation between child labour and child work

The differentiation between child labour and child work has always been a controversial issue. According to various Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) survey, a child who is engaged in any kind of work is considered as child labour whether he gets wages or not. International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines 'child labour' as 'work' that deprives children of their childhood and their dignity, which hampers their access to education and the acquisitions of skills, and which is performed under deplorable conditions, harmful to their health and development.

Child work has been defined by ILO as all paid and unpaid work for the household or for the market, whether it is full time or part time. Participation in household activities on a regular basis and for several hours in a day to relieve adult for wage employment is also included in this definition (Burra, 2005).

Labour hampers the social physical as well as mental development of a child. Due to involvement in child labour, the child is deprived from proper socialization and physical and mental development.

While child work is good for the health of a child because there is no exploitation in it in terms of working hour and wages. World Bank defines 'child work' as that which does not involve an exploitative relationship and this should be distinguished from child labour. It further argues that in some instances work done by children within the family may even contribute to the development of the child. "Not all child labour is harmful. Many working children who are within a stable and nurturing environment with their parents

or under protection of a guardian can benefit in terms of socialization and from informal education and training (Burra, 2005).

Child work may be a positive step in a child's development, while child labour hampers, the healthy development of the child. The kind of works in which children are engaged in household activity must be considered other than child labour due to the non-availability of proper definitions of child work and child labour. The controversy between these two terms should be removed. As Lieten (2002) rightly says, in his article published in *Economic and Political Weekly* that "painting India as a huge child labour camp" (Lieten, 2002).

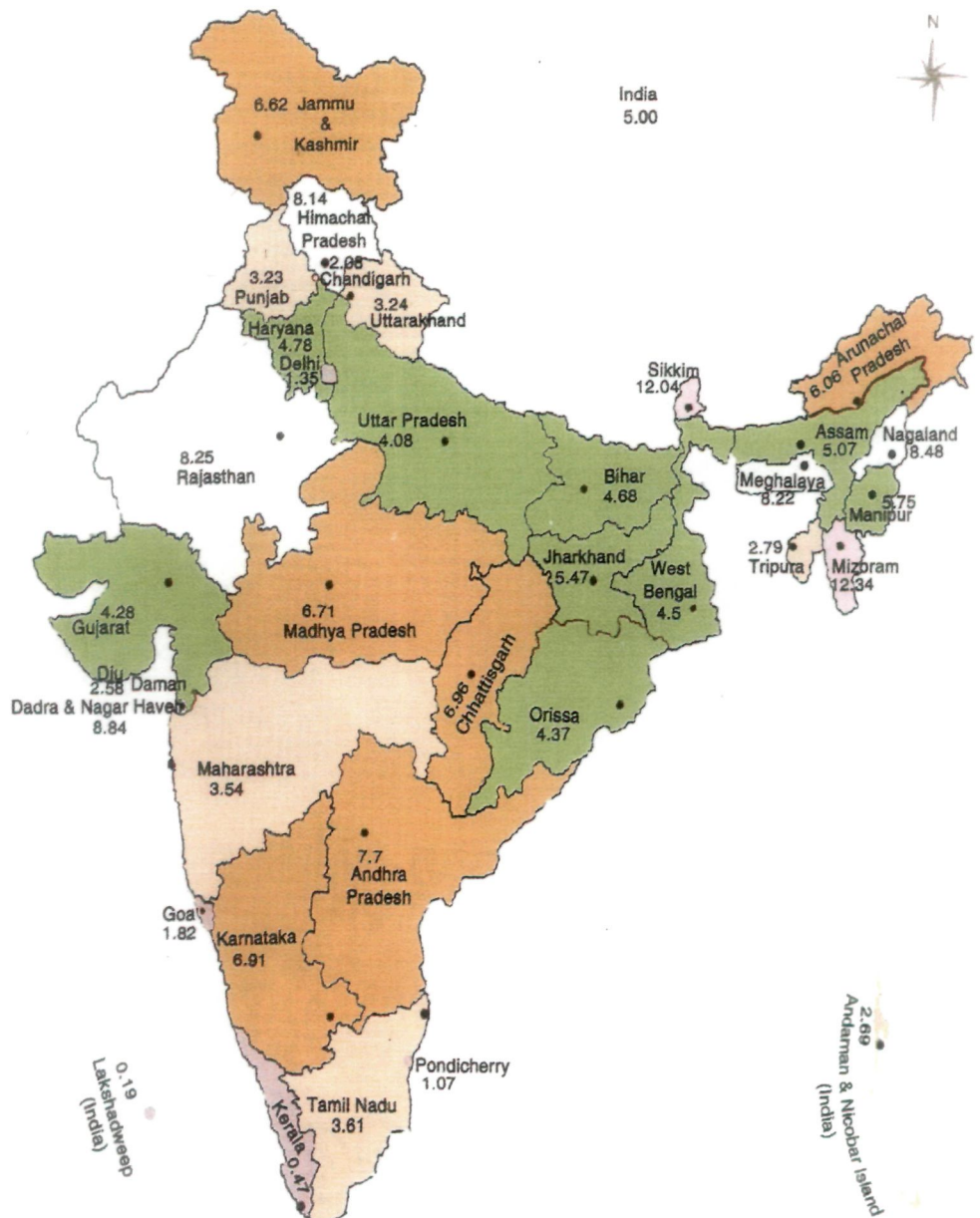
Due to lack of proper definition of child labour and child work there is great variation in the statistical data provided by the Government of India and various NGO's. Richard Anker (1999 ILO) warns about the overestimation of child labour as "purposely dramatizing the magnitude of child labour and can have an unexpected negative effect of making the problem appear too weak to solve". All encompassing estimate of child labour is misleading since different types of child labour are combined into one resulting in the proverbial mixing of apples and oranges (Lieten, 2002).

1.2 Extent of child labour

It is very difficult to have exact scenario of prevailing child labour because there is high differentiation in statistical data provided by the Government as well as NGOs. Out of the total world's workforce participation, India has one third workforce population in child labour. India is the largest country in the world having highest number of child labour.

The latest statistics show that about 250 million child workers exist in the age group of 5-14 all over the world. A recent survey conducted by the International Labour Organization (ILO) states that out of these 61 per cent are

Share of Workers (5-14 years) in the Respective Population Total



Range (%)	Colour
0-2	Light Pink
2-4	Light Orange
4-6	Light Green
6-8	Light Brown
8-10	Light Yellow
10 and above	Dark Brown

in Asia, 32 per cent in Africa, and 7 per cent in Latin America. India has the largest number of child labourers. It is also true that child labour in India is more of a rural phenomenon, with more than 90 per cent children working in agricultural and allied activities (Bhargava, 2003).

According to government figures the number has decreased over the past 20 years, from approximately 21million in around 1980 to 9 million in the year 2000, with a child workforce participation rate that has decreased from 11.2 per cent to 4.8 per cent (Lieten, 2006).

Some states have shown decreasing trend while some show increasing trend.

Table 1.1

Extent of Child Labour

Name of the state	1971	1981	1991	2001
Andhra Pradesh	1627492	1951312	1661940	1363339
Assam	239349	-	327598	351416
Bihar	1059359	1101764	942245	11175000
Gujarat	518061	616913	523585	485530
Karnataka	808719	1131530	976247	822615
Madhya Pradesh	112319	1698597	1352563	1065259
Maharashtra	985357	15577556	1068418	764075
Meghalaya	30440	44916	34633	53950
Nagaland	13726	16235	16467	-
Orissa	492477	702293	452394	377594
Rajasthan	587389	819605	774199	1262570
Tamil Nadu	713305	975055	578889	418802
Uttar Pradesh	1326726	1434675	1410086	1927997
Kerala	111801	92854	34800	26156
Punjab	232774	216939	142868	177268

Source : V.V. Giri National Labour Institute, Noida

Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Gujarat, Orissa, and Tamil Nadu show a decreasing trend of child labour, while Bihar, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh have shown a highly increasing trend of child labour and rest of the states, Assam, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Punjab have a smaller proportion of child labour (Sekar, 2007).

A number of NGOs as well as most western source state that India has more than 100 million child labourers, which is to say that about half of all children between the age of six and fourteen are engaged in child labour (Lieten, 2006).

The Government of India considers that it is not necessary that a child who is not in school must be engaged in labour. And every kind of work can not be categorized as labour. The kind of work which is hazardous and hampering to the physical and mental development is defined as child labour, while NGOs conclude that every child who is not in school and engaged in paid or unpaid work will be considered as child labour. Due to this controversy there is differentiation in the statistics regarding child labour. We have an incredibly large number of child labourers (13.6 million to 44 million) in our country. Child labour constitutes 5.2 per cent of the total labour force and is more of a rural phenomena with more than 90 per cent children working in villages (Bhargava, 2003).

1.2.1 Extent of Child Labour in Sitapur District (Research Area)

Sitapur district consists of a considerable population of child labour. And child labour is prevalent in every sector of the district. But the main concentration of child labour can be found in *dari* (cotton carpet) industry followed by hand embroidery work, dhaba, general stores and so on. The

overall child population in Sitapur district is 1015093. Out of this, 21856 children are main workers. (Main workers are those whose working period are six month or more than six months). It constitute 2.15% of the total child population, 18109 constitute marginal workers (marginal workers are those who working period are less than six month), that is 1.78% marginal child worker population (ILO Census Report, 2001).

1.2.2 Industrial and Agricultural Child Labour

Although child labour is banned in hazardous industries, it still consists high concentration of child worker's population. In industries like, *dari* (cotton carpet) industry, lock industry, glass bangle industry, beedi industry, the exploitation of child labour is found in the form of low wages long working hours. Poor working condition have severe negative impact on the health of a child. The working condition and the temperature in Firozabad bangle industries in which children work is very harmful for the children health.

Studies conducted at the Maulana Azad Medical College in New Delhi, showed genetic damage in the body cells of the labourers working with furnace heat for three years, which seems to be true, as many a child suffers from mental retardation (Sekar, 2007).

According to the Government of India, there are 2 million children working in hazardous industries. Examples of hazardous occupations include brick manufacturing, stone quarrying, firework manufacturing, lock making and glassware production. An ILO study on hazardous child labour in Bangladesh found that more than 40 types of economic activities by children were hazardous to them. The survey also revealed that except for light work,

child labour usually had harmful consequences on the mental and physical development of children (internet googles.search).

According to the census 2001, out of the total workforce of our country, children between 5-14 years have a 3.15 per cent share, totaling 12.6 million children. While there has been a decline in the number of children, as main child workers range from 9 million to 5.7 million, there has been a significant increase in the number of children engaged as marginal workers, from 2.2 million to 6.8 million. Children working in the agricultural sector constitute two third of the child labour force in India and their percentage in the rural child labour force is more than 75 per cent. According to the National Sample Survey, estimates of 2004-2005, around 5.6 million children work in agriculture, of whom 2.75 million are girls.

It was argued all along that child labour in agriculture was harmless and therefore could continue. Their work was never seen as hazardous by policymakers and adults. It seemed that these children blended with nature so well, working on farms and fields, that there was no need to disturb the poetic vision of these being nature's own children who led lives of harmony and peace (Sinha, 2007).

1.3 Child Labour as a Subject of Public Debate

Child labour should be debated, at least among children whom we are talking about. Children must be made aware of their rights. Child labour debates only take place between the various social, political and economic organization, child right activists and so on. The debate regarding the child labour takes place among literate people. While the population which is taken into the consideration for national and international debates should be

sensitized and mobilized about their own rights and conditions, every child must be made aware of his/her rights so that he can raise questions regarding his/her exploitation. Asha Bajpai (2003) points that “right to education of any child is clearly a human right”. Education is the basic right of every child. Education is important as it enables the child -

- a) To develop and realize her/his full potential as a human being.
- b) To develop the ability to think, question and judge independently.
- c) To develop a sense of respect, dignity and self confidence.
- d) To develop and internalize a sense of moral values and critical judgement
- e) To learn to love and respect fellow human beings and nature (Bajpai, 2003).

The perception that poverty is the main cause of child labour is not appropriate in the context of India.

There are many more factors which are responsible for promoting child labour. Due to socio-cultural and traditional reasons, children get engaged in work. If there is a culture of child work in particular area then the economic condition of child's family has nothing to do with it. Sometimes the child automatically learns his traditional family occupation and make it his career option.

To improve the working conditions and rights of the children. There should be awareness among the parents also. And emphasis should also be given on the awareness of the parents regarding education.

The Government of India has given a particular emphasis on elementary education and on its expansion and it is included in the five year plan of National Programme of 'Minimum needs'.

"The situation of elementary education is indeed improving (as in most other countries). The pace of improvement is slow. The primary education system in the country is one of the largest in the world

Table 1.2

Expansion of Primary Education in India

No. of schools	1950-51	1990-91	1996-97	Annual rate (%)	Growth
Primary	21,000	560,935	598,400	1.08	110.3
Upper primary	13,000	151,456	176,700	2.60	41.1
Enrolment (in million)					
Primary	19.2	97.4	110.3	2.09	19.2
Upper primary	3.1	34.0	41.1	3.21	3.1

This table shows an increasing trend in primary education from 1950 to 1997 (Bajpai, 2003).

1.4 Controversies about Abolition of Child Labour

As there is controversy between child labour and child work, again there are two controversies regarding child labour abolition. There are two lobbies, one lobby emphasizes that the abolition of child labour is possible only through education. The supporters of this lobby are Neera Burra, Shanta Sinha, Pramila Bhargav, Cini Asha etc. According to these scholars, children should get enrolled in educational institutions rather than engaging themselves in work, while the supporters of the second lobby (Sussan Bisell, Kaushik Basu, N.

Van) argue that the earning of child for the subsistence of the family is necessary because their income is a good source of financial assistance to their family. To ameliorate the condition of child labour, the working conditions and wage labour system should be regulated rather than forcing the children in getting enrolled for educational attainment. Because without the financial assistance of these child labourers to their families it is very difficult to maintain their daily livelihood.

1.4.1 Abolition of Child Labour through Education

The followers of this lobby assume that illiteracy is the main cause of persistence of child labour. Children do not attend school, therefore, they engage themselves in economic activity. In India child labour perception is based on poverty. If children will not earn for the assistance of their family then their family may face starvation.

She says that “Abolition of child labour was closely linked with the introduction of compulsory primary education. It is then of course expected that once the legislation is in place, child labour will disappear. Compulsory primary education means that for at least a part of the day children would mandatorily have to remain in school (Burra, 1995).

She further says that compulsory primary education should be strictly implemented because the long term solution of the problem is only education. She adds that “if there is at all a blueprint for tackling the problem of child labour, it is education” (Burra, 1995).

Education used as a weapon to abolish child labour in Anantpur district of Andhra Pradesh. She successfully achieved her goal. “In the long run, literacy is the only solution to the problem of child labour. The best way to prevent the

evil of child labour from spreading its tentacles any further is by insisting on primary education and strict family norms” (Bhargava, 2003).

On study of students of central and east Calcutta it is found that inspite of financial constraints, parents send their children to school. “A substantial majority of poor families accept the opportunity to send their children to school and keep these children in school despite the economic burden” (Asha, 2003).

The long term solution to the problem of child labour however, lies in the government passing an act guaranteeing education as a fundamental right to every child. In other words, passing the act on compulsory education, enrolling children in formal schools and retaining them there is probably the best way of withdrawing children from the work force (Kabeer *et al.*, 2003).

1.4.2 Indian Lobby

The proponents of this lobby assume that poverty is the main reason of child labour. Poverty compels the parents to send their children to work as child labour. The main question before the poverty stricken families is of subsistence. The basic need of every human being is ‘bread’. The families who are poverty stricken and have meager income to arrange their daily bread don’t think about sending their children to schools for attaining education. In such conditions, family members are compelled to send their children for child labour as they do not have sound economic condition to spend on education. They want the earning income of their children, whether the amount is less or more.

The followers of this lobby consider that the rights of child labour should be protected and their working condition should be improved. There should be no force on the parents for sending their children to school or for work. This

right should be given to the parents and not to the state or other organizations like NGO's. Because for their subsistence the income of their children is very necessary. The proponent of this lobby, Susan Bissell, Kaushik Basu and van say that children work out of necessity and without their earnings the standard of living of their families would decline further. They, therefore, argue that it is not easy to eliminate child labour all of a sudden due to the existing socio-economic situation. Regulation of employment in selected industries, improving working conditions, reducing working hours, ensuring minimum wages, providing facilities for health and education could reduce the plight of child labour (Agarwal, 2004).

1.5 Profile of *Dari* (cotton carpet) Making Industry

In the beginning the process of *dari* (cotton carpet) making was done manually. Only one *dari* (cotton carpet) was made in one day by the support of all family. Due to the changes of technology and yarn the quality of *dari* (cotton carpet) were improved day by day. Earlier there were no industry in Sitapur. In remote areas some people installed, the looms in their own houses. The *dari* (cotton carpet) hawkers sold the *dari* (cotton carpet) on the bicycle. The first *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry established by Makka Mia Hafiz Wajid Ali is no more. Approximately after 27 years of this, actual industry flourished on a large scale. Cotton mats are the main speciality of this industry, woolen mats and *shahneel* mats (refined form of cotton) are produced on small scale.

Muslim constitute 20-25 per cent of total population in Sitapur. Among the muslims 40 per cent are from the Ansari community, and 80 per cent of them were involved in the *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry. 10-15 per cent

Hindu population are involved in the *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry. No dalit was found in the *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry.

1.6 Review of Literature

This section deals with the review of some important literature related to the problems of child labour in India. In order to attain an insightful account, various books, articles, periodicals magazines, journals, and other published and unpublished material have been taken up. This is necessary for assessing the magnitude of the problem. Review of literature is an important step of research work which enables the researcher to understand and frame original research problems. Children are important assets of any nation, they are the future citizens, the destiny of a country directly depends on how its children are nurtured to fulfill the requirements of its society. In India, education is the joint responsibility of both the state and central governments, and the constitution of India envisages free and compulsory education for all children till the age of 14. Ironically, in reality, large numbers are deprived of this fundamental right and are subjected to back breaking labour in pathetic conditions. The result is illiteracy – a factor inseparably linked with child labour (Bhargava, 2003).

This section is divided into two parts on the basis of school of thoughts on child labour, child labour is a global phenomenon but it has assumed serious dimensions in developing countries. India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh account for the highest percentage of child labour in the world. Nearly 25 per cent of the world's working children are in India. It is difficult to get accurate figures on the working children in India because estimates of the population of working children differ from agency to agency. The estimates of child labour

vary. The difference in their estimation is due mainly to the adoption of different meanings of working children” (Singh, 1997).

The latest statistics show that about 250 million child workers exist in the age group of 5-14 all over the world. A recent survey conducted by the International Labour Organization (ILO) states that out of these, 61 per cent are in Asia, 32 percent in Africa, and 7 percent in Latin America (Bargava, 2003).

As mentioned earlier, there are two schools of thought. The supporters of the first school of thought suggest that child labour ought to be banned and primary education should be made compulsory. According to them, this is the only way to eradicate child labour, while the supporters of the second school of thought propose that the working condition should be regulated instead of banning child labour and education should be given together with the work, because banning child labour amounts to injustice for the family because the income of the children is necessary for the survival of the child labourer’s families. Therefore, banning of child labour would lead their families into greater misery.

The study further indicates that almost all children like this occupation and very small proportion disliked weaving. The reasons for unliking were that it was poorly paid, on the other hand the most important reason for liking were that the industry offered good employment prospects and opportunities of work for juvenile locally (Kambargi, 1991).

Burra has studied the various magnitudes of child labour in major hazardous industries of India and come to the conclusion that persistence of child labour is mainly due to the illiteracy and she states that

“India is the largest producer of non-school going child workers and most child workers in India are illiterate”.

“In India today, child labour is being justified on the grounds of poverty. If the children of the poor do not work they will starve. It is argued. But a fact that is not being recognized is that child labour cannot be justified in account where there is rampant adult unemployment and under employment.

“Abolition of child labour was closely linked with the introduction of compulsory education. It is then of course expected that once the legislation is in place, child labour will disappear. Compulsory primary education means that for at least a part of the day children would mandatorily have to remain in school”.

There are laws against employing children in factories which need to be strictly implemented and employers employing children strictly penalized. Compulsory education and strict child labour laws will go a long way to remove child labour.

“To a great extent reduce the numbers of children working full time, particularly those working in the rural areas and as part of family labour. If there is at all a blueprint for tackling the problem of child labour, it is education”. (Burra, 1995)

Bhargava has studied the Anantpur district (one of the largest district) of Andhra Pradesh in terms of area. Andhra Pradesh has the highest number of child labourers i.e. 14.3 per cent and the main concentration of child labour is in rural areas i.e. 90 percent. She tried her best to rehabilitate the child labour of the concerned area and she successfully achieved her goal with the establishment of residential camp's bridge course center (in which she passed the student two classes in one session) and anganwadi cum crech facility. She notes :

“lack of political will, shortage of resources and the misconception that child labour supplements the family

income are some of the primary factors that lead to the failure of compulsory primary education”.

“In India, neither is primary education made compulsory nor child labour considered illegal. Primary education is the most effective way of keeping children from becoming part of the labour force”.

“In the long run, literacy is the only solution to the problem of child labour. The best way to prevent the evil of child labour from spreading its tentacles any further is by insisting on primary education and strict family norms”.
(Bhargava, 2003)

Sinha stated that child labour can only be eradicated through education, and this effort should only be made by every person because education is every children’s right. The author opines :

“Schooling in India is possible if every section of the village community works towards establishing the norm that no child must work and that every child must be in school. In the process schools get defined as institutions for the protection of children’s right against exploitation. School as an institution is strengthened, facilitating children’s access to and retention in schools”.

“The long term solution to the problem of child labour, however, lies in the government passing an act guaranteeing education as a fundamental right to every children. In other words, passing the Act on compulsory Education, Enrolling children in formal schools and retaining them there is probably the best way of withdrawing children from the work force”. (Kabeer *et al.*, 2003)

India is the largest producer of non-school going children, the government should take some positive step to provide education to every deprived childr.

The author further notes :

“Children are deprived of their right to education because the government is unwilling to spend so much on them and their future. Children can be kept away from work only through schools. Schools are not terribly innovative or creative programme and that the government is not

equipped to handle. Increasing the supplies such as more teachers, quality teaching, better curriculum and textbooks alone is not a guarantee for the universalisation of education.

Vidyasagar, Chandra and Reddy studied the involvement of child labour in Markapur's (Andhra Pradesh) slate industry. About 90 percent of India's writing states are produced in this industry. The authors opine that

child labour in the Markapur state industry is an outcome of the interplay of both demand and supply side factors owing to the labour intensive nature of the industry. It looks out for cheap sources of labour. Since slate making involves various processes like cutting, polishing, framing, packing etc., children are mostly employed as helpers, though the incidence is less compared to mines. Slate making is also done through subcontracting work to household units called "companies" locally. There is no direct contact with the actual mine lease holders for the workers nor do they work as employees. They are treated as subcontractors as each family is allotted a piece of area for mining, and the main leaseholder and sublease holders wash their hands off any responsibility for providing statutory benefits for the worker along with bearing the cost of tools and blasting materials. After laborious work, the actual workers are left with meager earning which forces the entire family to work hard. Thus, the organization of production in mining is a important factor in the continued exploitation of child labour (Singh, Raj and Seker, 2002).

Asha has conducted a study of school children of central and east Calcutta and found out that inspite of financial constraints majority of the poor families send their children to school. She observes :

A substantial majority of poor families accept the opportunity to send their children to school and keep these children in school despite the economic burden.

Every child has the right to an education regardless of his or her family's financial situation. No child should have to work, but low economic status and culture often

interact to force children in the slums to work rather than study.

It is not clear as to which is a determinant factor of child labour. Is it poverty or access to education, because in her study she found that families with poor economic condition also send their children to school.

Families that are extremely poor can, and will adjust in a number of ways to support their children's education. The limiting factor is for them to have encouragement and access to education. The primary issue in educating these children is giving them access to schools and their parent's knowledge about education. Resources should be used to build better educational infrastructure in these poor areas. (Kabeer *et al.*, 2003)

Yadav stated in his study that rural areas are the major source of child labour, children migrate from rural areas to urban areas, child labour is not considered illegal in rural areas. He writes :

Occupations depend for their survival on rural migrant child labour, indicating that rural areas are the major source of urban child labour. Child labour in rural areas is not considered exploitative since it is carried out under the protective guidance of parents or elders in the family.

A substantial majority of children in India are those who have never been to school because parents think that educating children is a wastage of time and money, education will not feed their family, but when a child learns any skill, he/she starts earning for their family's survival, which is most necessary for them. The author notes :

“What comes through loud and clear is that children are working in almost every sphere of economic life, they are exploited both by their parents and by the employer, and above all the child is deprived. The deprivation is of two types; one related to the impact on health, the second concerns educational status (as they) are unable to go to school”.

And again

A significant factor in discouraging children from attending school is child labour and short coming of education system itself. One of the major problems with schooling, however, is its cost. Parent's education and occupation are likely to have an impact on whether or not they support their children's schooling. Lack of schooling reduces knowledge about health, environment, family planning etc. (Yadav, 2005)

Vidyasagar and Kumarababu conducted a study to asses the fall-out of legislation on child labour in match making industry of Sivakasi Tamil Nadu.

They found that

There were more female children in child labour households then non-child labour households. The juvenile sex ratio is also higher in the child labour household. Match industry depends more on female children than male children. Child labour constitutes about 32 percent of the total workforce in the households with working children. In the sampled household, nearly 46 percent of the workers depend on the match industry and another 33 percent on agriculture.

In the non child labour households, only 31 percent of them are dependent on match works, while a significant proportion of workers in these household have better paid jobs.

Of the working children about 15 percent are never enrolled in schools and another 62 percent are primary school dropouts. The average monthly income of a child worker is about Rs.600, average monthly income in child labour household is Rs. 2722 while it is Rs. 2116 in non-child labour households. Child labour households earn more than non-child labour household. Only 12 percent of the household is the children contribution less than 10 percent of the total family income. There was no starvation and the general economic standard are relatively better than in many other areas. All

surveyed schools have more than one teacher, However, due to the poor quality of education and better opportunity cost for children's time at work, parents influence a high dropout rate (Singh, Raj and Sekar, 2002).

Devi and Geetha proposes that education is the right way to eliminate child labour and also suggests that, first of all parents should be educated. Only the governmental effort will not be enough to solve this multi-dimensional problem, if parents are educated, they would understand the importance of education. Adult employment should be encouraged also. They are of the opinion that :

“Poverty and child labour feed each other in a vicious cycle. Education is the weapon that breaks this cycle. In order to educate the working children we need to focus upon motivating the parents. Parents have to be educated to understand the importance of schooling. This plays a vital role in determining child schooling and employment. Relying on government alone will not bring success. It should be a joint effort of the entire community. Greater awareness must be created among parents is not sending children for work but rather to school. It is generally because of inadequate income that poor parents have to work at an early age to earn a living. To overcome this, adult employment must be strengthened. This to a great extent can reduce the practice of child labour. If poverty is addressed, the need for child labour will automatically diminish”. (Geetha and Devi, 2005)

Singh also conducted a survey in Mirzapur Bhadoi, carpet industry to find out nature and problems of child labour engaged in this industry. He took carpet weaving centres of Mirzapur district a sample for his study similar to findings of other. Children in this centres belongs to low socio-economic families. Poverty is the main force of motivation. The ages of these children ranges from 9-15 years and they carry the work from dawn to dusk daily. The daily earnings are Rs. 5-10. The rooms are dark and dingy, having no

ventilation and remain full of wool fluff. They suffer from diseases like lung diseases, swollen feet, weak eyesight etc. due to the nature of work and unhygienic conditions (Singh, 1986).

Bhatty suggested that child labour should not be fully taken as a result of poverty but also seen as a result of social attitudes and sensibilities. Education is the surest way to tackle the problem. She writes :

“Child labour is a phenomenon of poverty than of social attitudes and sensibilities. Learning skills through education is a sure way to break the cycle of child labour and low income. Compulsory primary education must be introduced, simultaneous with large scale improvements in the education system. This is undoubtedly the single most effective tool in keeping children away from the labour force. Simply trying to enforce the law through labour inspector is not likely to yield results, as the numerous small scale units that use child labour are highly dispersed and difficult to keep a tab on. Moreover, the law itself has loopholes that can easily be taken advantage of while there can be no substitute for tightening the law and law enforcement machine very, simultaneously adopting the principle of compulsory education could play a decisive role strengthening. (Bhatty, 1996)

Lieten also finds out that

For some it is of indignation at the social injustice which it involves, for others it is a yardstick to come down on irresponsible governments in the third world, and for others it is a natural consequence of an asymmetrical world economy. Child labour in India when sized down to realistic proportions, remains an ignoble illustration of exploitation and exclusion but a less dramatic illustration of exploitation and exclusion than would appear from the exaggerated claims and studies by some western observers. In the tradition of Mamdani, it still often is assumed that children are an economic asset and that the high fertility a conscious household strategy of rural families.

Lieten has studied two villages named Upadhyaypur and Dhanaicha in the district Faizabad of U.P. and come to the conclusion that

A major point that they have established was that the economic rationale of parents behind the adherence to high fertility levels is questionable. The assumption that parents beget children as an investment device, if reflective of reality would suggest that parents foremost are to blame for low literacy and high child labour incidence.

Parents do acknowledge that ideally, in the long run, there are advantages associated with having a reasonable number of offsprings.

Education is a general wish among parents and children, but that the access remains limited due to the ill equipped and ill functioning government schools. It is generally approved that children should be sent to school, but dissatisfaction with the school functioning may induce the child and the parents to forego education of their children, enforcing them to start earning. The dropout factor is more likely to be associated with push factors intervals to the school system than to the pull factor emanating from the labour market. (*Lieten*, 2000)

Sekar and Mohammad conducted a study on Aligarh lock industry. They find that the manufacturing units are scattered all over the city. The main objective of the study was to analyse the impact of legislation on child labour in lock industry of Aligarh. Seven hundred households with working children and three hundred without working children were selected from eighteen Mohallas. Aligarh's lock industry is a labour intensive, and there are around 3,000 units employing 1.25 lakh workers. The number of artisans and direct labour involved in this trade is estimated to be 60,000 and the remaining 65,000 are indirectly involved as suppliers of raw materials, sales agents, commission agents, packing and forwarding agents, advertisement agents etc.

Children in the age-group of 6-14 constitute 75.71 per cent of the workforce. 70.5 percent were employed as individual workers and the remaining 29.5 percent were working as part of their families. The incidence of child labour is much higher in the Muslim community because of the existence of home based lock industries in large numbers in the areas where the Muslim population is pre-dominant. This is also because the lock work is a traditional craft of the muslims. The incidence of child labour among Hindus is more common among the upper castes and mostly insignificant in schedule castes, about 80 percent of the family members of child labours and about 57 percent of the family members of non-child labours are illiterate. Approximately 58 percent of the family members of child labours and 50 percent of the non-child labours have been found to be working in the home-based lock industries.

A majority of the households of child labours have entered into their employment at the age of 14-20 years and been working for the last 10 years or so. About 75 percent of all the households are concentrated in income bracket of Rs.500-2000 per month, is a indicative of their poor economic condition. 90 percent households are local resident a small number of households have migrated from adjacent district. 80 percent of all the households have been working in small workshops and at their homes for several years and 99 percent of all the sample households are not aware about laws like the factories act and child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act. Although the percentage of indebtedness is very low, but there is a common practice of taking cash advances, from contractors and employers. Lock work is the primary source of income of almost all the child labours and there is no secondary source of their income. There is a lack of coordination among local level people, voluntary

organizations and government officials. The number of government schools is less than the private schools and most of these schools have less than two classrooms. Financial problems of the households are the main cause for the non-enrolment of children as parents prefer to send their children to earn rather than learn at school (Singh, Raj and Seker 2002).

Venkatanarayana suggests that all children out of school should not be considered as child labourers. This principle shows a wrong picture of the problem i.e. only children out of school were child labourers. This is not true in many places as school going children also work. It is also true that the children may be out of school, but not at work. Child labourers or children out of school should be considered as educationally deprived.

Saying that all-out of school children are child labourers is not convincing because, among other reasons, it sounds as if work and schooling are mutually exclusive activities for children. Referring to them as educationally deprived children is justified from the perspective of human capital development and human rights. Education is a prime requirement for them. Those who are not able to attend school due to economic health or school related problems can be referred to as educationally deprived children. It is justified in the perspective of human capital, human development and human rights. With this objective, we can categorise homogeneously all those out of school children as educationally deprived children rather than child labourers. (Venkatanarayana, 2004)

Ahmad carried out an empirical cross country study, and suggested ways to handle the problem:

“Poverty is only a minor explanatory factor behind the incidence of child labour. Poverty ranked last among the seven determinants of child labour in terms of their respective explanatory power.

School enrolment is a major explanatory factor but this relationship is somewhat blurred as some children could combine work with education and because of the possibility of exaggerated official school enrolment statistics and high school dropout rates. However, the negative relationship between school enrolment and child labour and between adult literacy and child labour confirms the double dividend that can be reaped from free compulsory universal primary education both in the short and long terms". (Ahmad, 1999)

Burra) suggests from the experience of Shantha Sinha's work of MV foundation that –

"The elimination of child labour is the responsibility of the education department and not that of the labour department. MVF, through its grassroot level work has shown that the solutions to child labour elimination lies in strengthening the formal school". (Burra, 2005)

Mathur and Singh have studied the condition of child labourer in gem polishing industry of Jaipur. They found that gem polishing industry is predominantly unorganized by nature, operating through various small workshops situated in residential buildings spread over large areas in the old city. Since the industry is based on the import of rough stones and export of finished products. The number of workers and the child labourers engaged in the industry are at around 60,000 and 13,000 respectively. The very nature of the industry, which requires no knowledge based skill employees, total substitutability between adult and child labour children are mainly engaged in gem grinding and gem polishing. Seven hundred fifty households was taken for the study out of these five hundred household with child labour and two hundred fifty households without child labour. The main purpose of selecting both child labour household and non-child labour household from the same area is to examine the differences in the socio-economic profiles of the

households and find the reasons for some households sending their children to work and others not sending their children to work. The work participation rate of the child labour household is 54 percent as compared to non-child labour household it is only 34 percent. The average monthly income of the child labour household was 4466 whereas the monthly income of the non-child labour household is Rs. 5135. The minimum age of entry into work was six years for both boys and girls in the gem polishing industry;. Poverty is an important factor in the area, coupled with a not so meaningful education system, the parents find work to be a viable alternative with better career prospects for their children. Most people in this region are in a state of abject poverty. The workers of this area have very limited employment opportunities. Most of the workers have learnt the skills passed down to them from one generation to the next (Singh, Raj and Sekar, 2002).

Laskar carried out a study of child labourers in the lock industry of Aligarh, and observed that financial burden compel children to work. His survey of child labourers in the lock industry of Aligarh reveals that household economic pressures compel children to enter into low wage, hazardous work environment that proves detrimental to their educational and health prospects. He observed that child labour is a phenomenon of poor socio-economic status of a section of society which cuts across communities. In Aligarh, poor section of Muslims who are not able to manage job or livelihood elsewhere join degrading, sub human task in the hazardous and low paying processes of lock making". (Laskar, 2000)

Lieten has stated that "In the drive for universal education all children not in school have been assumed as working children. Such a development is ill

advised as child labour is an aberration that is to be eliminated forthwith. Putting all forms of deprived childhood into one category 'child labour' is compounding confusion". (Lieten, 2002)

Antony and Gayathri attempts to locate the issues in the large context of child rights by reviewing policies and the construct of childhood in India mapping the ambiguities regarding children work and education.

Childhood is a social construct and has variations across culture, time and space. Out of school children comprise of children who are never enrolled and those who enrolled but dropped out. Children at work can be understood on the basis of the regularity of work (full time, part time, seasonal), working conditions (degree of hazard or exploitation), social relations of work (bonded labour, family based farm or enterprise, wage employment) and nature of returns to work (unpaid family labor, payment in kind, piece rate time rate). Some argue that nowhere children are potential child labourers and refer to time use data to justify this claim, others argue that these children are involved in unpaid non-economic or economic activities in their homes such as sibling care, animal tending and family enterprises. The effort to educate one generation can wipe out child labour. Many other lagging human development situations. Investment needed for compulsory primary education estimated at 6 percent of GDP by Kothari commission.

(Antony and Gayathri, 2002)

Thorat and Sadhna states that "higher wages of adult males and females generally help to reduce child labour. It is the income level of the household which matters most in the decision to push the children to work. Government interventions in the form of increased expenditure in rural areas on education and rural development will help to improve the participation of children in education. The percentage of children attending educational institutions and the literacy rate used as impact variables, high per capita agricultural income

presumably helps to reduce the incidence of child labour indirectly through its impact on increased education expenditure and subsequently through improvement in school attendance. The authors suggested that expenditure should be induced on education as well as to improve the rural households income i.e. adult employment should be encouraged. If the financial condition of the households be improved than child labour will be automatically finished. (Thorat and Sadhan, 2004).

Asha has stated in her study that child labour is the main obstacle for children in achieving education. High dropouts, absenteeism and low enrolment were all the result of child labour, she has also observed that the majority of poor families send their children to school and keep their children in school despite their financial burden.

Every child has the right to an education regardless of his or her family's financial situation, the cost of educating a child is clearly an extremely costly endeavour. Resources should be used to build better education infrastructure in these poor areas. (Kabeer *et al.*, 2003)

Sharma has studied the impact of social labelling on child labour in carpet industry. Social labelling is an initiative to prohibit child labour. The author made an attempt to analyse as to what extent the labelling programmes are able to eliminate child labour. The author opines that :

“The labeling initiative differ widely in their approach, although their broader objective is the same, i.e. elimination of child labour. Despite, a broader common concern, there is no coordination among these labeling initiatives. On the contrary the way the labeling programmes promoting their respective labels indicate a sense of competition rather than coordination. Although organization like RUGMARK and Kaleen, promise to provide child labour free carpets, considering the short comings in the monitoring system, such a guarantee

could be erroneous. In carpet production, there are exporters – contractors – subcontractors – weavers. It is a very complex settings, which make monitoring an arduous tasks. The disorganized nature of production and variation in the level of engagement or the involvement of intermediaries in the production of carpets makes monitoring a gigantic exercise the children work on off loom activities also, and surprisingly the present study did not come across even one instance where off-loom activities were ever inspected. The labeling agencies have concentrated on schooling of children and providing health facilities. However, the educational and rehabilitations programme by these agencies were found to be adhoc in nature. In spite of widespread corruption at various levels, it seems that legislative measures has been most effective towards reducing the incidence of child labour. It is indeed very important to note that there was remarkable awareness about the child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 and children were aware that if they were caught while working then their parents and the loom owners would be sent to jail. All this has created an environment in which the employment of children is at least feared (Sharma, 2002).

Zachariah has found, in his study, that only one child was enrolled out of eight child, and in case of girl, only one girl was enrolled out of twenty of those who were enrolled in the schools, two thirds dropped out by class V. All these things mainly occurred due to the poor schooling system. He observes :

The major road block in achieving universal elementary education is the absence of quality education in schools. Most of the schools are plagued by child unfriendly pedagogy, poor quality of education, poorly functioning schools, detention of children, corporal punishment, in competency of teachers, teacher's absenteeism, shortage of teachers etc. (Zachariah, 2005)

Weiner is of the opinion that when employment opportunities grow with the expansion of the country's consumer industries, the governing middle class may recognize that the country needs a more literate population and therefore

must invest in its children. She also says that the existing schooling system are not able to fulfill the needs of the poor. She notes :

Since existing schools are unable to meet the needs of the poor, parent should not be forced to keep their children in school. It is painfully true that India has not satisfactorily addressed the serious problems in primary education. The lack of trained teachers and the absence of adequate teaching tools, blackboards, play equipment and books” (Weiner, 1996).

Juyal conducted a study among the child labourers in the carpet industry of Mirzapur. He points out working conditions, work environment, wages and treatment of the employers towards working children. In his study he estimates about 1.5 lakh children are engaged in different jobs of the carpet industry of Mirzapur. Children are between the age of 5-15 years. He traces poverty as the main force pushing children into the occupation. Mostly children have been found bonded labourers. They are exploited in terms of wages and are paid in terms of dihari system (the number of knots, and 6,000 knots is equal to one dihari) and the earnings are Rs. 5-10 per day. For the first six months the child worker is treated as learner and is paid nothing. The study further reveals that working conditions are very poor and the work place is ill ventilated, dark and dirty. The children are supposed to work there 13-14 hours daily. These working children are prone to various diseases such as weak eye-sight, headache, pain in legs etc. There are no medical facilities. Children are generally ill treated and even beaten up for minor mistakes. Mostly children are found to be illiterate (Juyal, 1987).

Gupta conducted a study on the child workers of Mirzapur. He explores similar points and the findings by and large supplement the findings of the

study referred to above. The study reveals that the child labours is engaged in Mirzapur carpet industry belong to poor families having no land or job. Mostly 8-15 years old children have been found working there. These children, as the study reveals, are preferred in carpet knotting due to their nimble fingers. For the first six months, a child is placed under training and is not paid any amount. The working hours are 12 a day. There is no proper arrangement of ventilation and light and the rooms always remain full of wool fuff which the working children inhale. The study further reveals that these children develop disease like weak eye sight, chest problems, cough and they often receive cuts on their fingers. These children are brought from the tribal areas of Bihar by middle men or agents by loaning the money to their parents. These children are illiterate and have no schooling at all. The treatment of the employer is not good (Gupta, 1988).

Another important study regarding child labour condition was conducted by a commission appointed by Supreme Court. The Commission surveyed the carpet weavers in Palamau and Mirzapur-Varanasi-Allahabad. A total of 237 villages were surveyed: 160 in Palamau, 55 in Mirzapur, 14 in Varanasi and 8 in Allahabad district. A total 2569 weavers were interviewed: 104 in Palamau, 1294 in Mirzapur, 137 in Varanasi and 94 in Allahabad. In addition to this the commission interviewed 1620 children: 858 in Palamau and 762 in Mirzapur, Varanasi and Allahabad districts. The report revealed that 72.5 per cent of children surveyed in Palamau and 41 per cent of the total universe surveyed in Mirzapur, Varanasi and Allahabad districts were below the age of 14 years. It further indicated that 60 per cent of the total weavers are children below 14 years of age. The observations revealed that a vast majority of children

belonged to scheduled caste and backward class and were mostly illiterate. The data further revealed that 48.3 per cent of child weavers in Palamau and 50.7 per cent in other districts have taken loan advances. Children have to work at least for six months and in some cases upto one year as trainees. The hours of work are also too much, beyond the capacity of these tender aged children. They usually work 9-12 hours a day. It is also reported that 34.38 per cent of children from Palamau district work for more than 12 hours. These children are exploited in terms of wages. It has been found that 48 per cent of the 850 children interviewed in Palamu get only food and no wages, 37.5 per cent receive one rupee; 8.7 per cent Rs. 2; 1.6 per cent Rs. 3; 3.5 per cent Rs. 4 and only 0.6 per cent 5 rupees per day in addition to food. Same is the case with children engaged in Varanasi-Allahabad-Mirzapur belt. In this region 45.5 per cent get Rs. 2-5; 24 per cent Rs. 7-8; 18.6 per cent Rs. 9-10; and 7.6 per cent received more than Rs. 10 per day. The food whenever given, is deducted from the wages at the rate of Rs. 3 per day.

The report further revealed that these children are ill treated and are not allowed to change their employer. Neither are they free to take leave nor allowed to go home. Medical facilities were seldom available, as only 16.1 per cent children in Palamau received medicine when they fell ill. The cost of medicine was adjusted against their wages. The working conditions were also reported to be alarming. The worksheds were generally conjusted and the ventilation was very poor and the air was laden with wool fluffs. The loom sheds in Mirzapur were found open to air and sun though they had enough light and ventilation but in extreme weather they turned torturous.

Burra conducted a study on the child labours of glass industry of Firozabad. She points has studied working conditions, wages and health hazards. She estimated that 25 per cent workers are children out of the total workforce participation while labour Department estimated that only 13 per cent children were engaged in the industry. It is seen that child labour is so important for the glass industry that if factory owners did not employ children, their production would go down by 25 per cent. Children do all types of jobs in glass factories. They were seen carrying molten glass on a seven foot iron rod called labia from the furnace to the adult workers and back to the furnace. Nearly 85 per cent of the total child labour force was engaged in this activity. Children sit in front of furnaces where the temperature are said to be about 700°C. In many of the factories where the children were drawing molten glass from tank furnaces, in which the temperature was between 1500°C and 1800°C, the face of the child was within six to eight inches from the opening of the furnace. No minimum wages were fixed for the glass bangle workers. Child labour employee justify those harsh conditions on the grounds that the children need to be acclimatized to the intense heat (*Burra, 1995*).

Sekar conducted a study in the Bidi industry of Uttar Pradesh found that girl child labour constitutes 73 per cent of the total child labour in Beedi industry all over India. Allhabad, Mau, Ghazipur and Azamgarh are the main centres of Bidi manufacturing. Most of the bidi manufacturing takes place at home. Bidi workers are provided raw material and wages are paid on piece rate. Bonded labourers in large numbers also work for contractors hired by the big bidi making companies. The employers are of the opinion that children have amazing grasping power and learn easily. Because an adult can make

2000-2500 bidi in a day and a child can make 4000 bidi in a day. Most of the children engaged as bonded labour are by and large illiterate. Illiteracy level is very high among bonded labourers. Majority of the bonded labourers are from scheduled caste or backward class and they are deprived of education, health care, and even of basic amenities of life such as water, electricity, toilet facility etc. Children were mainly involved in the activities like tying thread on the rolled bidi, closing the upper ends of the rolled bidi, leaf cutting and bidi rolling. Children of bidi industry mainly suffer from the ailment of tuberculosis, bronchitis and cough and back pain and arthritis due to defective sitting posture (Sekar, 2007).

After reviewing the studies relating to first school of thought we now turn to the second school of thought. According to this school children should be permitted to work, because prohibition of work would lead their family into greater problem. However, the working conditions should be regulated and working hours should be reduced.

Basu states that it is not a good idea to try to eradicate child labour in one stroke. Some areas are so poor that perhaps the best policy is to allow children to combine some schooling with some work. Indeed, doing some work and earning some money may be the only way that children can afford to attend school. In some of the poorest economies, if we try to eradicate child labour suddenly (whether by law or by a consumer boycott of such products), we may push poor households into even greater poverty and possible starvation. Restrictions should be placed on the number of hours that a child is allowed to work and on the conditions of work (*Kabeer et al.*, 2003).

1.7 Research Methodology

The present study is primarily based on qualitative research techniques. The purpose of this approach is to offer an insightful analysis of a multidimensional problem of child labour. This problem is not the product of merely economic factors but also the interplay of social and cultural factors. In order to delve into the attitudes and values of people qualitative methodology has an edge over quantitative methodology. The data collected through case studies, participant observation methods are supplemented with quantitative data from census, commission reports.

150 respondents and seven cases have been selected for the purpose of study to have an in-depth and all round information covering socio-economic aspect of social life of the respondent. Questions dealing with socio-economic sphere of life that has already been used during the observation and unstructured interview were kept in mind during the investigation of these present cases.

District Sitapur has been chosen as a locale (universe) of the research area, of which Khairabad, Laharpur, Chilwara and Parsendipura and proper Sitapur were chosen for the study as there was a high concentration of child labour engaged in *dari* (cotton carpet) industry here.

The total population of the district according to 2001 census are 36,19,661 of which total males 19,41,374 and total females are 12,78,207, total child population was 10,15,093 of which 21856 are child workers, 18109 are marginal workers (ILO Census Report, 2001).

Although census 2001 provides data regarding overall child labour in Sitapur district but no statistical data is available on the child labour

specifically engaged in *dari* (cotton carpet) industry. On the basis of some observations, investigations and communication with the people, it was found that significant proportion of the population working as a child labour is mainly engaged in *dari* (cotton carpet) industry. Therefore, the researcher has estimated the population of some particular pockets of Sitapur district, where the large chunk of children is engaged in *dari* (cotton carpet) industry have been chosen as a sample of the population. These areas are proper Sitapur, Khairabad, Chilwara and Parsendipurwa.

1.7.1 Sample Selection

The researcher has employed two stage sampling. In the first stage various pockets having high concentration of child labour in carpet industry have been chosen on the basis of purposive sampling to make sample more representative; in the second stage the researcher has employed simple random sampling to choose the respondents from each selected area. Both types of sources of data collection i.e. primary sources of data collection and secondary source of data collection have been used in the present study. Primary source of data are those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character. Participant observation, unstructured interview and case study method are the primary sources of data. While the secondary source of data, are those which have collected by some one else and have already been passed through the statistical process. Census, various studies of different social scientist etc. are taken as a source of secondary data.

Chapter 2

The Setting of the Study

UTTAR PRADESH

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS 2001



BOUNDARIES:

INTERNATIONAL ... ———
 STATE ... ———
 DISTRICT ... ———
 TAHSIL ... ———

HEADQUARTERS:

STATE ... ☆
 DISTRICT ... •

- A Ambedkar Nagar
- G Gorakhpur
- S Siddharthnagar
- M Mau
- K Kaushambi
- KN Kushinagar
- GBN Gautam Buddha Nagar
- JPN Jyotiba Phule Nagar
- SKN Sant Kabir Nagar
- SRN Sant Ravidas Nagar
- (KH) Khalilabad
- H.P. HIMACHAL PRADESH

The district headquarters of Kanpur Nagar and Kanpur Dehat is located at Kanpur.

Where the district name differs from its headquarters name, the latter is given within brackets.

A hand-drawn map of the Sargol District, showing its boundaries and internal divisions. The map is oriented with North at the top. The district is bounded by the Ghazal River to the north and the Jhelum River to the south. The district is divided into several sub-districts or taluqs, each containing one or more towns. The towns are marked with dots and labeled. The sub-districts are: Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi), Sargol (containing Sargol, Khairabad, and Parsendi). The map also shows the districts of Jhelum to the west, Sargol to the east, and Sargol to the south. The map is a black and white line drawing with dashed lines for district boundaries and solid lines for sub-district boundaries. The towns are marked with dots and labeled with their names. The rivers are shown as wavy lines with dots representing the riverbed. The map is a hand-drawn sketch, likely for administrative or historical purposes.

Chapter – 2

THE SETTING OF THE STUDY

2.1 Profile of the District

Sitapur was established by King Vikramaditya after the name of Lord Ram's wife, Sita. This place is concerned with ancient, medieval and modern history. This is a land of seers and Sufis as well Purans were written by Rishi Ved Vyas on this holy land.

According to Hindu mythology, the *Panch Dham Yatra* journey of main religious Hindu places will not be completed without visiting the Neemsar or Naimisharanya, a religious ancient place in Sitapur. The contribution of Sitapur cannot be avoided in social, historical, political and literary field in the country. Many freedom fighters of Sitapur gave their life to free India from British rule. Captain Manoj Pandey sacrificed his life in Kargil war in 1999 and honoured his birth place with *Param Veer Chakra*.

Sitapur Eye Hospital is serving for eye patients throughout U.P. providing sight to visually challenged people. Ilasiya Park, Mahavir Park, Sarojini Vatika are the main gardens of the city . Vaidehi Vatika, Shahid Captain Manoj Pandey monument and Shaurya Stambh are also important symbols of the city. The cotton and woollen mats (Durries) are famous in India and being exported abroad (Rural Engineering Services, Sitapur).

2.2 Demographic Features of the District

Total population of the district according to 2001 census is 36,19,661 persons, comprising 19,41,374 males and 12,78,287 females. Rural

population of the district is 31,86,973 persons, 17,14,279 males and 14,72,694 females and urban population is 4,32,688 persons (2,27,095 males and 2,05,593 females).

The scheduled castes population of the district as per 2001 census is 11,53,626 persons and comprising 6,19,501 males and 5,34,125 females. The rural-urban break-up of population is given below:

Rural (i) Scheduled caste - 1111955,

Male - 5,97,270

Female – 5,14,685

Urban (i) Schedule castes – 41671

Male – 22,231

Female – 19,440

2.2.1 Literacy Rate

According to 2001 census, total literates are 14,04,443 persons, of these 9,43,222 are males, 4,61,221 are females. In the rural areas of the district 11,63,041 persons (8,04,072 males and 3,58,969 females) are literates.

Inspite of an increasing trend in education from 1991-2001, the district is still educationally backward. 83 per cent population of the district depends upon the agriculture. Because of this seasonal agricultural work, they faced unemployment most of the time (Sitapur.nic.in).

2.3 Geographical Outline of the district

The district of Sitapur forms part of the Lucknow division of Uttar Pradesh and is a part of Gomti-Ghaghra Doab, lying between Lat 27°6' and

27°54' and Longitude 80°18' and 81°24' E. In shape it is a rough parallelogram and is approximately fifty miles from North to South and seventy miles from East to West. It is bounded on the west and the south by the river Gomati which meanders from North West to South East, separating this district from the district of Hardoi; to the east lies the Ghaghra, which separates it from the district of Bahraich; to the north is the district of Kheri, there being no natural boundary on this side except in the north-east where it is marked by the river Dharwar; and to the south are the districts of Lucknow and Bara Banki which also lie between the Gomati and Ghaghra.

The area of the district, as computed on the basis of the district record of tahsil areas is 2,207 square miles or 14,1248 acres and to the survey of India it is 2,208 square miles (Nevill, 1923).

2.3.1 Rivers, Canals and Waterways

The chief rivers of the district are the Gomti, the Sharda, or Chauka and the Ghaghra. The Gomti flows on the west and south-west of the district in an irregular course from north-west to south-east separating it from Hardoi. The Kathna and the Sarain are its chief tributaries. The Chauka enters the district in the north of the Tambaur and leaves at the extremity of Kondri south to enter Bahraich, It causes extensive flood and the Kharif harvest is always in danger of being swept away by the violence of the river. The flood in the Chauka have come from time to time and effected considerable soil-erosion causing alteration in the physical aspect of the country. The Kewari is its chief tributaries, the Ghaghra is also known as the Kauriala, and flows in the extreme east and causes annual inundation resulting in damage to standing

crops and property. Jhils and tanks are numerous throughout the district (Encyclopaedic District Gazetteer).

2.4 Historical Aspect of the District

Chhatyapur or Chhityapur was the old name of the town in the reign of Akbar, but no official description is to be found regarding its name. King Vikramaditya named this city Sitapur in the memory of Sita, because it is said, that Sita stayed with Rama at Sitapur during a pilgrimage. Naimisharanya also known as Neemsar was also a renowned place during Post Vedic Period.

Lava and Kusha came here along with Sage Valmiki, when Rama performed the Ashvanmedhna Yajna after the exile of sita. 88,000 Rishies were received the knowledge of Shastras in a large university of post-vedic period, and Shaunakji was the vice chancellor of this university, Pandavas also came to this holy place. Lord Rama and Sita washed the stigma of Ravan's death at this holy place, and it is also assumed that Sita proved her purity and assimilated in the holy soil. This place was added in the Shingunas Kingdom of Magadh and came into the control of Shunga dynasty after the decay of Nanda and Mauryas. Statues of shunga style were found in Sidhaultahsil.

Maharishi Ved Vyas created purans in the holy land of Naimisharanya, which is situated on the left bank of Gomti.

Khairabad Sirkar consisted of twenty two mahals or parganas during the reign of Akbar. But many of them are in the present district of Kheri and

Hardoi. Todar Mal one of the Nav Ratans of Akbar was constituted a mahal known as haveli Khairabad.

Khairabad was an important trading center in the days of Aurangzeb Shahjahan. Cotton goods and cotton textiles were manufactured and sent to different parts of India and even abroad.

Khairabad Sirkar had twenty four mahals in 1720 A.D. According to Khulasatul tawarikh and chahar Gulshan. 'KERRIABAUDS' was a name given to Khairabad by English traders.

Under the missionary of Khairabad division, Sitapur was selected as the headquarters of one district in February 1856. After the annexation of Avadh, the land between Ghaghra was constituted into another district and not included in the Bahraich division.

In the struggle of 1857-58 Sitapur's participation was spontaneous, and Khairabad was the last tehsil to fall into the hands of British. Raja Indar Prasad organized the war against the British and remained loyal to Hazrat Mahal. The Arya samaj, the sewa samiti, the home rule league and a political organization became active in the district which later produced some political workers who played a prominent role in the nationalist movement. Acharya Narendra Dev, an eminent nationalist was born in Sitapur. In 1889 Murli Dhar, a lawyer established the Arya Samaj in Sitapur. Gandhiji's non-cooperation movement was launched in 1921, and many people from Sitapur participated in it and fifty nine went to jail.

A large number of Congress workers manufactured contraband salt in the Lalbagh area of Sitapur and courted arrest. And boycotted the government

schools and colleges, picketing of liquor shops and shops stocking foreign clothes.

According to Gandhiji's Instruction, individual satyagrah was started in 1940-41. Around 600 people got arrested and underwent three to six months imprisonment. Sitapur reacted characteristically to the "Quit India" resolution of the Bombay session of the Congress of August 8, 1942. A general election was held in 1946, the Congress captured all the three seats of the district (Nevill, 1923).

2.5 Present Status of the District

The district consists of six tehsils and nineteen community development blocks. It has eleven towns, two thousand three hundred forty eight villages (2314 inhabited villages and 34 un-inhabited villages).

The urban population of the district as percentage of total population in the census years 1981 and 1991 is indicated. It also shows sex-ratio (females per 1000 males) and density (population per square km.) in the urban population of the district in relation to the state.

Table 2.1

Rural and urban Population of Uttar Pradesh and Sitapur

State/ District	Urban population as % of total population		Sex ratio 1991 females per 100 males		Total	Density populati on per sq.Km)
	Rural	Urban	1981	1991		
U.P.	17.95	19.89	886	862	881	472
Sitapur	10.29	12.02	829	860	833	406

Source : The Encyclopedic District Gazetteers of India.

Table 2.2

Number (with percentage) of Villages having One or More Amenities in the District as per 1991 Census

Amenities	No. of inhabited villages	Percentage
Education	1416	61.19
Medical	2313	99.96
Drinking water	2313	99.96
Post and telegraph	346	14.95
Market/Hat	269	11.62
Communications	223	9.64
Approach by pacca road	672	29.04
Power supply	908	39.24

Source : The Encyclopedic District Gazetteers of India.

Four degree colleges with two faculty of arts, one faculty of commerce and one faculty of science are present. Higher, secondary middle and primary schools are located in all the towns. The following tables gives details of the number of the institutions per 1000 population.

Table 2.3

Average Number of Higher, Secondary, Middle and Primary Schools per 1000 Population

Name of the town	No. per 1000 population		
	Higher Secondary	Middle	Primary
Biswan	0.21	0.10	0.77
Khairabad	0.11	0.17	0.81
Laharpur	0.05	0.10	0.35
Mahmudabad	0.17	0.26	0.60
Neemsar-cum Mishrikh	0.14	0.88	0.88
Sitapur	0.10	0.15	0.69
Total	0.12	0.18	0.67

Source : The Encyclopedic District Gazetteers of India.

2.6 Health Services

Twenty-nine villages have hospitals in Sitapur district. If all kinds of medical institutions including dispensaries, health centres etc are taken into account, 219 villages out of 2361 have medical institutions.

The highest number of beds, that is 892, in medical institutions are in Sitapur town followed by Khairabad with 124 beds. There are only 16, 24 and 28 beds in the medical institutions of Laharpur, Biswan and Laharpur respectively. The minimum number, that is 4 beds are in the institution of Neemsar.

2.7 Administration: (1) Administrative Division

Tahsils:

Mishrikh, Sitapur, Laharpur, Biswan, Sidhauli, Mahmudabad.

Community Development Blocks:

Pisawan, Mahauli, Mishrikh, Machhreta, Godlatau, Eailiya, Hargaon, Parsendi, Khairabad, Laharpur, Behta, Reusa, Sakran, Biswan, Kasmanda, Sidhauli, Pahala, Mahmudabad, Rampur-Mathura.

Towns And Urban Agglomerations Having population less than One Lakh:

Biswan, Laharpur, Khairabad, Mahmudabad, Hargaon, Maholi, Tambaur-cum-Ahmedabad, Mishrikh-cum-Neemsar, Sidhauli, Paintapur.

Cities And Urban Agglomeration Having Population One Lakh And Above:

Sitapur

Number And Name of Parliamentary Constituencies:

17-Sitapur, 18- Mishrikh

Number And Name of Assembly Segment: Sitapur

74-Behta: Kondri-north Pargana, Tambaur T.A. and Tambaur pargana (excluding L-Cs, 8-Sakran, 9-Tarpara, 13-Itauwa, 14-Kalli, and 15-Khajura in Tambaur pargana in Biswan tahsil.

75-Biswan: Biswan municipal board, Biswan pargana and L-Cs, 8-Sakran, 9-Tarpara, 13-Itauwa, 14-Kalli, and 15-Khajura in Tambaur pargana in Biswan tahsil.

78-Laharpur: Laharpur T.A. Laharpur pargana, Khairabad municipal board and L-Cs, 11-Pakaria, 12-Bhadyari, 13-Tappa- Khajuria and 14-Khairabad. Ramkot pargana, Sitapur municipal board and L-Cs, Tikwapara, 16-Sitapur, 17-Klark- Nagar and 18-Khatkari in Sitapur pargana in Sitapur tahsil.

80- Hargaon: Hargaon pargana and Sitapur pargana (excluding L-Cs, Tikwa-Para, 16-Sitapur, 17-Klark-Nagar and 18-khatkari) in Sitapur tahsil, Maholi pargana (excluding L-Cs, Tikra-tikar, 11-Chamkar and 13-Kusaila) in Mishrikh tahsil.

Sitapur was in Sitapur-cum-Kheri district Lok sabha seat in 1952. The community-wise break-up (OBE) in Sitapur is muslims (19), S.C. (33), Ahirs and Brahmins around (9) each. Kurmis (8) and Lodhs (5) percent. Muraos and Rajputs are also present in numbers, Chamars (15) and pasis (12) percent are dominant among schedule caste

76-Mahmudabad: Sadarpur pargana, Kondri south pargana, Mahmudabad town area and Mahmudabad pargana (excluding L-Cs, 1-Barthar, 2-Deokala, 3-Malimat nagar 4-Daryapur in Sidhauli tahsil.

77-Sidhauli (SC): Manwan pargana, Peer nagar pargana, L-Cs, 1-Barthar, 2-Deokala, 3-Malimat nagar and 4-Daryapur in Mahmudabad pargana in Sidhauli tahsil.

81- Mishrikh: L-Cs, 10-Tikra-tikar, 13-Kusaila in Maholi, Chandra pargana, Mishrikh, Neemsar municipal board, Mishrikh pargana and L-Cs, 1-Phoolpur, 2-Bhitauli, 3-Lakhanpur and 4-neemsar in Aurangabad pargana in Mishrikh tahsil.

82-Machhreta (SC): Machhreta pargana, Gondlmau pargana, Korama pargana and Aurangabad pargana (excluding L-Cs, 1-Phoolpur, 2-Bhitauli, 3-Lakhanpur and 4-Neemsar) in mishrikh tahsil.

83-Beniganj: Gondwa pargana, Kalyanmal pargana, Beniganj T.A. and L-Cs, 1-Pipri, 2-mahrajpur, 3-Beniganj, 6-Majhigawan, 7-chappartala, 8-Kothawan, 9-Nagwa and Koronkola in Sandila pargana in Sandila tahsil (Encyclopaedic district gazetteer).

2.8 Economic Status of the District

The economic-base of any city depends on its economic activities, production capacities and the scenario of its surrounding areas. The economic development is the pillar on which urban development depends. Because the headquarters of the district is situated in Sitapur city which make it an important centre of industries and trading activities, while comparatively

Khairabad is a small rural city. Due to the proximity of Khairabad to Sitapur, The city of Khairabad is slowly getting intertwined with the district headquarter. The pillar of development depends on trade and commerce, which also contributes geographical development of a place (Sitapur Mahayojana, 2021).

The district is mainly agricultural, more than 83 per cent of the population depending on agriculture for its livelihood. The average cultivated area is 10,64,454 acres. Among the tahsils, Sitapur had the smallest area under cultivation, averaging 62.04 per cent and ranging from 55 per cent in Pargana Khairabad to 66.69 per cent in Pargana laharpur of that tahsil. Biswan tahsil has the highest cultivated area ranging 67.84 per cent of the total area.

Sharda canal provides irrigation to the Sitapur district and Tube-Wells proved to be very successful in the western part of Sitapur. Generally the district is covered by canal irrigation, but the irrigation work is served by tube wells, wells, jhils ponds and lakes.

The Rabi, The Kharif and the Zaid are the main harvest of the district. The area occupied by wheat cultivation was 2,54,316 acres. The area under Kharif always exceeded that under Rabi. The kharif area maintained the rising trend due to the growing popularity of sugar-cane. The principal crop of the district are Rice, Wheat, Juar (guinea corn), Bajra, Barley, Maize, Rag or Mandura, Millet, Kodon (small millets) etc. Wheat is the main crop of all the Rabi crops. The cultivation of wheat has been on the increase since 1899. Gram is another favourite Rabi crop. Rape- seed, Mustard and linseed

are sown in Rabi and grow best in heavy clayey soil. They are generally sown mixed with other Rabi crop like barley.

Rice is the most important Kharif crop which covers an area of 2,58,063 acres. Rice is grown in clayey and heavy loams which are particularly undrained and hold rain water. Bajra is also an important Kharif crop which occupied 21,757 acres: Juar is the staple food of the poor, acquiring a land of 14,319 acres. The main oil seed sown in Kharif is til. Castor seed is a negligible oil seed, And it is generally sown on the borders of sugar-cane fields. Groundnut occupies the largest area among all the oil seeds. The other Kharif crops are Maize, Millets and pulses like Urd, Moong, Masoor and Arhar.

The chief vegetables sown are Potatos, Sweet-Potato, Onion, Tomato, Cauli-Flower, Cabbage, lady-Finger Turmeric, ginger, chilli etc.

Mango, Papaya, Banana, Jack-Fruit, Ber and Water-Melons are mainly sown in the area.

The domestic animals of Sitapur are superior to those of the southern districts of the division, like in the adjoining districts of the state, cattle buffaloes, sheeps and goats are generally reared. Artificial insemination has been provided for improving the breed of livestock. many veterinary hospital and dispensaries are available.

More than twenty five species of fish including Rohu, Nain kraunch, Parhan, Prawn, Tengir, Paryasi and silung inhabit the rivers, perennial streams, Jhils, tanks, artificial reservoirs and the flooded fields.

Khairabad was one of the famous centre of cloth manufacturing during seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In 1640, the East India company established a factory in Lucknow for the supply of Handloom fabric woven by the weavers of Khairabad, to England, France, Holland, East Africa, East Asia and some other countries. The cotton industry remained a centre for the manufacture of Calico, Chintz and Gazi (white coarse cloth).

Biswan is an old centre for the manufacture of *Tazias* which are in great demand during Moharram. It was also well known for its pottery, a specialty being the making of beautiful gharas (clay pot) and other vessels of common use on which floral designs are painted on dark green ground with great skills. Bandu, an artisan was awarded a bronze medal for his artistry in pottery at Empire Exhibition held in London in 1886. Utensils of an Alloy of copper, zinc and lead were made not only in this place but in Khairabad and Maharajnagar as well.

There are many large scale industries in which five are sugar mills, Six are rice and flour mills, Five are engaged in the production of edible fats and oils. Sitapur plywood factory currently is not in use due to non-payment of electric bills and other revenues established in 1939-40. It employs about 485 persons, its annual production was 24,00,000 units cubic feet of plywood and consumed 45,211 units. The timber used in the factory not only comes from the state but from the Madhya-Pradesh and Assam as well.

Soap factory, *Dal*-Splitting mills, ice- factories, lime-factory, furniture work are the small scale industries. Handloom cloth industry is very old and the most important industry of Sitapur.

The district excels in the production of *Durries* and Khairabad is famous for the reversible type known as the *Selum Durries*. Other places noted for their durries are Laharpur, Chilwara and Biswan, the last producing durries and other varieties and the other two turning out farshi durries. Cheap varieties of durries are also made in Bisendi, Parsendi and Tal Gaon. The durries weaving-training cum production centre in Sitapur trains people in improving the method and technique of production.

In Paintepur, the weavers are involved in the weaving of dhoti, bed-covers etc. In Udnapur several looms are engaged in preparing cheap saris, dhotis and lungis about 2.5 yards long and 46 inches wide, with coloured check and plain designs. These are exported to Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma.

At present Sitapur is not famous from industrial point of view; Suhagan oil factory is the most famous industry but has been shut down since long time. At present the district is mainly famous for its woollen and cotton mat (Durries). Khairabad and Laharpur are famous for its production and export.

The most important article manufactured and exported from Sitapur, Khairabad and Laharpur is *dari* (cotton carpet), whereas sugar is manufactured and exported from Biswan. Angaucha and groundnut oil are manufactured in Mahmudabad, Neemsar and Mishrikh respectively, whereas vegetables and cheora are exported from these towns. The most important article imported in Khairabad and Laharpur is thread, whereas cloth is imported in Mamudabad, Neemsar, and Sitapur (Nevill, 1923).

Table 2.4

**Decadal Percentage of the Participation of the Labour Force of Sitapur
and Khairabad City**

Description	Decadal year					
	1971		1981		1991	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Sitapur Labour	18921	28.36	29129	28.77	31857	26.15
Non-Labour	47794	71.64	72091	71.23	89985	73.85
Total population	66715	100.00	101210	100.00	121842	100.00
Khairabad Labour	4772	27.53	5805	25.37	8058	27.15
Non-Labour	12563	72.47	17080	74.63	21618	72.85
Total population	17335	100.00	22885	100.00	29674	100.00
Mixed Labour	23693	28.19	34934	28.15	39915	26.34
Non-Labour	60357	71.81	89161	71.85	111601	73.66
Total population	84050	100.00	124095	100.00	151516	100.00

Source : Sitapur Mahayojana, 2021

It is apparent from the table that during 1971, 1981, and 1991 the participation of this labour force has been 28.36 per cent, 28.77 per cent and 26.15 per cent. For the city of Sitapur, while the workforce participation of Khairabad city during 1971, 1981 and 1991 were 27.53 per cent, 25.37 per cent and 27.15 per cent, for the city of Khairabad the percentage of both the cities, for three decades works out to 28.19 per cent, 28.15 per cent and 26.34 per cent, the percentage of this participation of the labour force, when compared to the nearby cities is almost similar. During 1991 the drop in this percentage reflect the decreased employment opportunities during the year

1981, 1991. This also indicates the migration of the labour-force in question to metropolitan cities. This migration is due to the better employment opportunities in metro-polis.

The percentage of labour-force in different categories of Khairabad and Sitapur cities is enumerated in table.

Table 2.5

Decade-wise Description of Classified Active Population of Sitapur and Khairabad Cities During 1971-1991

City/ Division	Decadal year					
	1971		1981		1991	
	Working people	%	Working people	%	Working people	%
Sitapur						
First Division	1480	7.82	1400	4.80	2118	6.65
Second Division	3300	17.44	1310	4.50	4565	14.33
Third Division	14114	74.74	26419	90.70	25174	79.03
Total	18921	100.00	29129	100.00	31857	100.00
Khairabad						
First Division	1191	24.96	1180	20.33	1314	1631
Second Division	1610	33.74	784	13.51	3200	3971
Third Division	1971	41.30	3841	66.16	3544	4398
Total	4742	100.00	5805	100.00	8058	100.00
Mixed						
First Division	2671	11.27	2580	7.38	3432	8.60
Second Division	4910	20.73	2094	5.99	7765	19.45
Third Division	16112	68.00	30260	86.63	28718	71.95
Total	23693	100.00	34934	100.00	39915	100.00

Source: Sitapur Mahayojana, 2021

Similarly, the statistics show that there is no vast difference amongst first second and third grade employees in the city of Sitapur and Khairabad.

During 1971 the percentage of Sitapur city of first, second and third grade employees were 7.82 per cent, 17.44 per cent and 74.74 per cent respectively. In the year 1981 these percentages were 4.80 per cent, 4.50 per cent and 90.70 per cent respectively and in the year 1991 the percentages were 6.65 per cent, 14.33 per cent and 79.03 per cent respectively.

During 1971 the percentage of Khairabad of first, second and third grade employees was 24.96 per cent, 33.74 per cent and 41.30 per cent respectively. In the year 1981, these percentages were 20.33 per cent, 13.51 per cent and 66.16 per cent, and in the year 1991, these percentages were 16.31 per cent, 39.71 per cent and 43.98 per cent respectively. This indicates a combination of rural and economic activities at an increasing level. The combination of percentages active employees of both Khairabad and Sitapur cities in the year 1971 have been 11.27 per cent, 20.72 per cent and 68.0 per cent for first, second and third grade employees respectively. In the year 1991 these percentages were 8.60 per cent, 19.45 per cent and 71.95 per cent respectively.

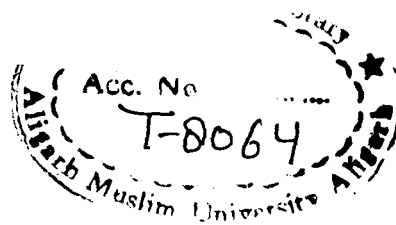


Table 2.6

**Division of Different Economic Activities of the Active Population of
Khairabad and Sitapur City-1991**

Economic Activities	Number and percentage of labour					
	Sitapur		Khairabad		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Carpenter	1300	4.08	837	12.39	2137	5.35
Agricultural Labour	582	1.83	448	5.56	1030	2.58
Animal husbandry	236	0.74	29	0.36	265	0.66
Khan & Khadaan	-	-	-	-	-	-
Family business	1054	3.31	1569	19.47	2623	6.57
Besides family business	3003	9.43	1497	18.59	4500	11.27
	508	1.59	134	1.66	642	1.67
Construction	8315	26.10	1455	18.06	9770	24.48
Trade & Commerce	15217	47.77	1770	21.97	16987	42.56
Other services	122	0.38	64	0.79	186	0.47
Limited workers	1530	4.77	255	3.16	1775	4.45
Transportation and telecommunication						
Total	31857	100.00	8058	100.00	39915	100.00

Source : Sitapur Mahayojana, 2021.

It is evident from the above table that according to the 1991 census a large number of the entire active labour population was employed in other services. The percentages of the labour force of the entire active labour participation in other services of Khairabad and Sitapur were recorded at 0.79 per cent and 0.38 per cent respectively. The labour force employed under trading and commercial activities has been 21.97 per cent, and 47.77 per cent. The percentages in employment with industries have been 9.43 and 18.59 per

cent respectively, which is supposed to be the pillars of economic base for these cities. Besides the percentage of labour force employed under family business and small scale industries in the city of Khairabad has been 19.47%. If we take the combined statistics of both the cities, The percentages of employment under other services, Trade and commerce and industrial activities were 0.47 per cent and 24.48 per cent respectively. The economic base of these cities is primarily centered under the above stated economic activities (Sitapur Mahayojana).

2.9 Communication

Vehicles normally used for transportation are Cycles, Rickshaws, Tongas and bicycles. The passengers are carried by buses of roadways from Sitapur town to tahsils and other district town.

The section of Rohilkhand Kumaun railway from Lucknow to Sitapur was opened on November 15, 1886, and from Sitapur to Lakhimpur on April 15, 1886. This railway is North-Eastern meter gauge railway line and the station on this line are Ataria, Sidhauli, Kamlapur, Barai-Jalapur, Khairabad, Jharenkapur, Sitapur and Hargaon.

In Sitapur there are two branch lines of Northern- railway, one between Barabanki and Sitapur and the other between Roza and Sitapur (Nevill, 1923).

2.10 Principal Communities and Their Religious Beliefs and Festival

In Sitapur there are four principle castes: the Brahmins, the Kshatriya, the Vaishya and the Shudra each being sub-divided into a number of sub-

caste. With the spread of and the impact of new ideas the rigidity of caste system has slackened to some extent.

The majority of Brahmins belong to the Kanya-Kubja sub-caste, and the rest, are Gaurs, Sanadhyas, Sakaldvipis and Sarayuparins. The Brahmins are still orthodox in matters of food and seldom eat, with people belonging to even a different sub-caste of the Brahmins themselves. Many Brahmins are landholders, businessmen and some follow the priestly vocation. Those who are educated, are involved in learned professions and the services.

The Kshatriya are usually called Rajputs or Thakur. Traditionally, the Rajputs are divided into three main categories, those claiming descent from the sun, the moon, and the fire. The predominant clans among the district are the chauhans, Bais, Rathors, Somvanis, Raikwars, Kachhwahas, Raghuvanis and Chandella's. Like the Brahmins, the Rajputs do not handle the plough and generally depend on hired labour, and those who are educated have entered various services, especially the military and the police.

The members of the Umar Vaish sub-caste are the most numerous. Other noticeable sub-castes are the Gohi, the Kasaundhan and the Agarwal. the Vaishyas are mostly engaged in business in the urban, and in cultivation in the rural areas. Some of them are also engaged in money-lending also.

The shudras comprised the schedule castes and some other backward classes like Chamars, Pasis, and Bhangis. They are generally employed as labours. The Kayasth community are generally educated and have entered into government and other services, particularly in law and teaching.

Mostly, Hindus are the followers of the Sanatan Dharma (the orthodox form of Hindu religion). They believe in the Avtaars of Vishnu (incarnation of Krishna), and generally worship Rama, Krishna, Shiv, Durga, Vishnu, Hanuman and other dieties of the Hindu pantheon. The principal religious book read and recited are the Ramayana, the Bhagwadgita, the Bhagwat-Purana. The worship of different dieties, oblations to the fire and the sun, the katha of Satya-Narain kirtan, Sandhya, fasting on particular days, people attach special sanctity to the pilgrimage to Naimisharanya and Mishrikh, both old and holy places in the Mishrikh tahsil of the district.

Among Hindus marriage is a sacrament, and although variations in the rites and ceremonies occur according to the custom of a particular caste or family, Kanyadan and Saptapadi are the essentials steps in the marriage rituals.

Varicha is the first ceremony connected with the Hindu marriage, in which money and other gifts are given by the bride's parents to the bridegroom and his relatives. After this Tilak or Lagna ceremony is performed at the bridegrooms house, the people again send presents and the intimation of the date and time fixed for the marriage. On the fixed date the bridegroom goes to the bride's house with the barat, then Dwaracharya is performed by the bride's family. The actual marriage then follows which includes Kanyadan by the bride's guardian and Bhanwar or Saptapadi (going round the sacred fire seven times), which are accompanied by the recitation of mantras from the scriptures. The next day several other ceremonies take place, the last being the vida or the departure of the bride.

2.10.1 Muslim

Muslims generally live in the vicinity of the old towns and are most numerous in tahsil Sitapur, and particularly in Khairabad and Laharpur. Muslims are also found in Biswan, Sidhauili, Mahmudabad etc. In Mishrikh Muslims are very few. About 97.7 percent of the total population of the Muslims are Sunnis and the rest are the Shias and the Lalbegis. The prominent caste of the Muslims are Julahas, Behnas or Dhuniyas, Shaikhs, Pathans, Muslim Rajput and Syeds, Among other divisions were the barber, beggar, tailor, vegetable seller, oil crusher, milkman, butcher, sweet maker, etc.

Muslims in the rural areas are mostly cultivators. But a significant number of Muslims are also engaged in various other occupations like, business, labour, government jobs etc.

Muslims believe in oneness of God and follow the rules mentioned only in Quran. Hazrat Mohammad is the last prophet and the true follower of Islam.

Muslims of Sitapur generally believe in Saints, keeping in mind that they are intermediaries between God and man. In Khairabad the Saints Bare Makhdoom sahab and Chhote Makhdoom sahab are held in the highest regard. The Muslim performs five religious duties, The recitation of Kalma, five time Namaz in a day, Roza, hajj and Zakat.

Marriage is a contract among Muslims. The Mehar is always fixed before marriage ceremony. The proposal is initiated by the bridegrooms parent. The turmeric, Oil and mehndi ceremonies are observed before Nikah.

Nikah is observed at the bride's house by the qazi in the presence of witnesses. A gold nose pin and glass bangles are the marriage symbols of the married women, but this is not mandatory according to religious point of view.

Rituals regarding birth and childhood are observed according to the Islamic tenets, on the seventh day after child-birth, mother takes first purificatory bath, on the fortieth day of childbirth mother, takes final purificatory bath and offers two rakat Nafil prayers and her child offers sajda in the Masjid. The main childhood ritual is circumcision (sunnat or khatna in), and the Tonsure (Aqqa) ceremony for both boys and girls are the main rituals of childhood.

2.10.2 Christian

Religious and missionary activities were started in the district by the Anglicans and the American Methodist. The first Anglican church was built in 1860 and the Methodist opened some schools in Sitapur and Khairabad.

2.10.3 Jains

They are six hundred and seventy one according to 1991 census and mostly belong to the Vaishya caste (Nevill, 1923).

Chapter 3

Organization of the Dari (Cotton Carpet) Making Industry

Chapter 3

ORGANIZATION OF *DARI* (COTTON CARPET) MAKING INDUSTRY

Sitapur, a district located 80 kms away from Lucknow, the capital of Uttar Pradesh is famous for its hand made *dari* (cotton carpet). The *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry is spread all over the district, and is predominantly handled by the Ansari caste of Sitapur. The Ansaris dominate almost all of the *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing process in the district. They are involved in production as weavers, and even manage and participate as child labour. A strong sense of brotherhood and a desire to be involved in the upliftment of the community are the main reason for their concentration in *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing industry.

The factory owners have direct links with the yarn suppliers, and the purchase are made directly, without the involvement of any third party. Most of the yarn is purchased from Panipat, Maharashtra, Delhi and Kanpur through the involvement of the yarn agents. Factory owner also have their own agents and distributors, and this helps them keep an eye on the entire manufacturing process at the production level. They also have their own suppliers who control production.

During its manufacturing, a *dari* (cotton carpet) passes through different stages, each made possible by the contribution of different sets of employees. The distributors, suppliers, weavers, knotters are permanent employees of the factory, and lastly the factory owner are the people responsible for production.

Child labours also play an important role in the manufacturing of *dari* (cotton carpet).

Agents supply yarn to the supplier for weaving. Some suppliers have their own looms. The number of looms may be fifteen to twenty, and hired weavers on contract basis are kept to handle the work. The rates are decided by the suppliers and the working hours are fixed with a one hour lunch break in the middle. These suppliers get orders directly from the agents of a factory.

There is another category of suppliers, who get order from the agents; and then distribute it to the weavers found in the interior areas of the district. Some weavers put up their own looms, while others work on looms which are rented.

Generally, *dari* (cotton carpet) weaving is done in the interior areas of a district. After completion of the work, the weaver returns his order to the supplier, and collects his wages. The incomplete *dari* (cotton carpet) is then handed over for knotting and clipping. This is the area in which child labours are mainly involved. It is usually children in the age group of 6-14 who are involved in the processes of knotting and clipping. It has also been found that a small percentage of the workers involved in the process of clipping are women; but these are only those whose children are involved in knotting. Otherwise, there is no evidence whatsoever which points out the direct involvement of women in this profession.

After knotting and clipping have been done, the supplier takes the *dari* (cotton carpet) and returns it to the agents or distributors. These *dari* (cotton carpet) are then taken to the factory where they are classified according to

quality. The *dari* (cotton carpet) are then packed, and then they are sent from the factories to their final destinations by either road or rail or even by air.

The retailing of the *dari* (cotton carpet) is exclusively controlled by the factory owners, who have direct links with national and international bulk buyers. This gives a huge profit to the factory owners, because *dari* (cotton carpet) are in high demand in both the national and international markets. On the national level alone, the annual turnover of the factories in the district Sitapur is about 90 crores whereas the export turnover could not be estimated, because except two three factory owners, most of them hide about their export business.

3.1 Mode of Production

The *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry is an unorganized sector, in the sense that a majority of the employees are not the direct employees of the factories. There is virtually no contact between the employer and all of the employees involved. Another factor is that the *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry is basically a home based industry especially in the small villages; where sometimes the entire population is involved in different stages of the manufacturing in addition to their primary occupations.

The suppliers from Sitapur, Khairabad and Laharpur generally put up their own looms on their own land, or rent it. But, in the villages of the above mentioned tahsils, people generally set up two-three looms, or even one, if their financial condition is not very good. The weavers are paid on the basis of per square feet of woven *dari* (cotton carpet), the knotters are paid on the basis of number of knots and the workers involved in mounting threads on wheels

are paid on the basis of number of threads mounted. Therefore, it can be seen that most of the process, except the dyeing of the yarn and packing of *dari* (cotton carpet) are completed in the homes of the employees involved.

The yarn is the most important raw material involved in the production of *dari* (cotton carpet), and this is purchased usually from the mills of Panipat, Kanpur, Delhi, Maharashtra. The wooden frame, which is an essential part of the production is usually made by putting lengthwise and breadthwise the two wooden parts, or *addas* of the frame.

Both the factories and the household manufacturing units are inter-dependent upon each other for their work. The factories provide employment to the population residing in surrounding areas. Usually the operations run smoothly, except when workers start creating problems, which then hampers the overall production speed, and the orders cannot be completed on time.

Then there sometimes arises the problem with the ready stock producers, which happens when the orders cannot be met by the factory owners or employers, and they have to rely on the *dari* (cotton carpet) supplied by the independent ready stock producers, which come at a rate fixed by *dari* (cotton carpet) producers. The factory owners are bound to purchase these *dari* (cotton carpet) because they do not have other options. It is ultimately, these independent producers who make the most profit in such a situation, on the one hand because they can dictate their terms to the factory owners, and on the other hand, they can dictate their terms to the workers, who are in any case, needy for work. These independent producers manufacture their *dari* (cotton carpet) in the off-season time and make profit during the peak marketing

season. These producers come in handy to the factory owners in times of sheer crisis.

The *dari* (cotton carpet) made in Sitapur are sold in the Indian market as well as abroad. The two main types of *dari* (cotton carpet) manufactured in Sitapur are the cotton mats and the *shahneel* (a refined form of cotton) mats. There is only one manufacturer of woolen *dari* (cotton carpet), and that is the Passendipurwa block in the Laharpur tehsil.

3.2 Labour Force

Because *dari* (cotton carpet) making passes through various stages, both skilled and unskilled labours are involved in the production. Skilled workforce is important because only they can skillfully weave the *dari* (cotton carpet). Training for weavers starts after the age of fourteen, because an appropriate height or rather length of the leg of the trainee is required for the job. A trainee acquires skilled workmanship by the end of a year and a half. So, normally, people enter into apprenticeship at the ages of sixteen or seventeen.

The process of dyeing does not require expertise, because the ratio of colour is decided by the supervisor. Every factory has its own supervisor. The rest of the *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing process also does not require specialized skills, so it is handled by both skilled and unskilled force. Knotting requires trained skills and so does clipping, so this stage of *dari* (cotton carpet) production is handled by the child trainees usually. Initially Knotting and clipping are done under the supervision of elders because mistakes are liable to be the reason for loss on the part of the worker. Usually, an age group of 9-14 are involved in this stage of the production.

Collecting and packing of *dari* (cotton carpet) does not require skill, so this stage of production is taken over by people who are in dire need of employment but have no skills. There is no age limit required in this section. Here, work is done on the basis of daily wages.

Permanent employees of the industry are better financially than the temporary employees. They have direct link to the employees, and are benefited in a number of ways. They open bank accounts and save money from their salaries in them. They are even helped by the employers in times of crisis. But this is not so for the non-permanent workers involved with the factory. They get paid only when they work and receive no help from the employers. A majority of the skilled workers fall in to this category.

3.3 Production Process

The very first process involved in the *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry is the dyeing of the yarn. This is either done manually or by machines. After dyeing the yarn is dried in the shade. The prerequisite condition here, set by the exporters and importers both, is that the dye should be izole free chemicals, because izole is harmful to the skin, and may cause a number of skin problems. When the orders are placed, a stringent check is made of the chemicals used in the dye. If there is any shortcoming the orders are cancelled and a new yarn supplier is looked for.

After the dyeing, the yarn is mounted on the wheels and this work is usually handled by the women. After, the mounting the threads on wheels starts the weaving. The loom is made by the carpenter with the help of iron and wood attachments. Then on an unpaved floor, a deep area is dug and the loom is

installed in it, for firm placement. Then the loom is mounted with the yarn. The yarn that is fixed on to the loom rods is known as the reet, and that which is hand held is known as the peek. Weaving also involved the legs. Of the reet and the peek, one is vertically placed and the other is horizontally placed. By this the weavers can inculcate different designs into the *dari* (cotton carpet). Usually weavers weave upto a maximum length of 48" x 72" – 80" size *dari* (cotton carpet)s. If the order for a bigger *dari* (cotton carpet) is made, a bigger loom has to be constructed, and on such looms two workers are involved at a time on such looms, huge floor *dari* (cotton carpet) and bed *dari* (cotton carpet) are made.

After weaving, knotting and clipping are started. Here, mainly child labours are involved; sometimes they are assisted in this work by the women. After the knotting and clipping, the *dari* (cotton carpet) are classified according to their quality and are sent to their destinations.

3.4 Working Condition

Initial processes of the *dari* (cotton carpet) is an industry based process, while the rest takes place at home. Therefore, it is imperative to analyze the working conditions of both of these units.

Our field work visits show these home based manufacturing units reveal the existence of poor working conditions. The houses are small consisting of a couple of rooms, a verandah and a courtyard. The houses are made of mud and the verandah have thatched roofs or plastic sheets. Looms are often to be found in the front verandah. The weavers and other child labours sit on the floor. Knotting requires the weavers to be seated in the same position for 5-6 hours at

a stretch. This puts a constant strain upon the eyes, hands and legs of the weavers. As a result of this, most weavers are known to suffer from backbone pain.

Like weaving, knotting also requires utmost concentration. And since, children are largely employed in this section, they tend to suffer from an early age as compared to the adults. Knotting puts tremendous strain and pressure on the eyes and fingers, because a close contact, both of the eyes and the hands, are required with the threads. The children either sit on their haunches (a position of being sitting on the hips) or on jute mats placed on the mud floors. Even while clipping, the children tend to inhale dust and, therefore, suffer from breathing problems. Working conditions, on the whole, is unhygienic in these units. Also, these conditions cannot be improved because this is a predominantly unorganized unit and there are no permanent employees here. Work is only done to earn a livelihood, and little attention is paid to improve the working conditions. Primarily, the suppliers are concerned only with the delivery of the finished products, and this adversely affects the psychology of the workers, who become concerned only with delivering the finished products on time and collecting their wages. So, little or no effort is made to improve the working conditions in these home based units. Compared to these, factories are better organized as units. The factories are clean with a hygienic environment, facilities for fresh, drinking water, toilets and lunch rooms are available. Since, the only work done in the factories is the dyeing of the yarn and packing of *dari* (cotton carpet), in addition to official work, there is a small number of workers present in the factory premises, hence, the orderliness in the factory. The workers, in these factories, work in big halls with asbestos roofs

and with proper arrangement of lights and fans. Some employers give them a lunch break of two hours. So, the condition of the workers in the factories is much better than in the home based units.

Workers in the home based units are wholly responsible for their work, so they make an effort to make the least possible mistakes, because they know that they will be facing the losses entirely on their own. In factories, however, working conditions, though not lenient, are not so stringent as well. The employees do not get punished for minor mistakes, though they do get penalized for not completing their work on time. Either their wages may be cut down, or if their mistakes persist, the worker may be terminated from his services for inefficiency. When extra work has to be completed in a short time, the workers are provided with tea and food as well.

In the area in which the research study was carried out, the degree of exploitation was not as high as in the other places. The maximum punishment meted out was the cut in wages, and occasionally, if the loss was irrecoverable, the employee was terminated. However, no evidence of physical punishment or beating was found. Wages are fixed at rate of per piece at the beginning of the job, but fixed payment is made later on the basis of performance of the employee. The job is also turned into a permanent one in the factory.

3.5 Wages

There is no uniform payment mode and structure in the *dari* (cotton carpet) industry. The per piece rate system is the most widely used mode of payment. However, in the home based unit, the wage structure and system is different. The workers in factories receive a fixed salary at the end and a certain

amount of it is deducted and transferred into their account in the form of provident funds. In the home based unit, however, the wages are made on the basis of work done. A 12" x 24" *dari* (cotton carpet) gets a weaver a payment of Rs. 9; whereas 20" x 32" gets him Rs. 15. A 48" x 80" size fetches Rs. 45. A weaver usually weaves 2-3 *dari* (cotton carpet) of 12" x 24" and 20" x 32". When a *dari* (cotton carpet), bigger in size than there is made, two people share the wages as two people are involved in the making of such *dari* (cotton carpet).

The wage structure in case of knotting and clipping also follows the same pattern. 24 knots get 0.50 paisa, 48 knots get .75 paise and 96 knots fetch Rs. 1.00. If the knots are not properly done, the suppliers deduct the wages.

The per piece rate system also largely depends upon the bargaining done between the employee and employer. Due to it being an unorganized industry, the *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing businesses have no unions, which will be responsible for the welfare of the workers – wages, working conditions and working hours. Workers have to work on the conditions and terms put down by the suppliers. In cases of protests on wages, the worker is deprived of his work and has to suffer the condition of unemployment.

3.6 Working Hours

Most of the respondents of our field were full time employer. There was no reported case of unemployment. In factory based units, the work hours are 9 AM – 6 PM, with an hour break for lunch in the summer season; and 10 AM – 5 PM with half an hour lunch break in the winter. However, in home based units the working hours are not fixed. Normally, work starts early morning and

continues till evening, with a break for lunch. But, the lunch break is not a fixed time, and is adjusted according to the work. Because of absence of electricity, workers work in the day time mostly; and so summer work time is more prolonged than winter work time.

After the completion of the *dari* (cotton carpet), the suppliers, usually by himself, collects the finished *dari* (cotton carpet), but sometimes the workers return their completed work to the suppliers by themselves, then starts the official work in the factory. First, the factory owner checks each *dari* (cotton carpet) for its weaving, knotting, clipping etc., then classifies the *dari* (cotton carpet). After this, instructions are given for packing of these *dari* (cotton carpet).

3.7 Retailing of *Dari* (Cotton Carpet)

After manufacturing, the *dari* (cotton carpet) is taken by the factory owners to the market. Since, all products, after being manufactured, are brought to the market, it becomes imperative to define the term market, because it is, eventually the market which is the base of every economy. In our economy contracts are always made in a 'market'. There are markets for labour, for entrepreneur services, capital, investments as well as mutual funds. Each of the above mentioned markets comprise of smaller, more specialized markets. To take an example, the labour market consists of numerous submarkets for each kind and grade of labour – labour for the steel industry, rubber industry and so on. A market exists when there are many suppliers of a particular good or service and many persons or organizations seeking that particular good or service (Johnson, 1966).

A number of companies are engaged in the *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing in Sitapur district. The pioneers were the Makka Miyan Hafiz Wajid Ali, which are now no longer existent. The leading manufacturer today, are Eastern *Dari* (cotton carpet), Haji Jalees, Liyaqat Ahmad, Afaque Ajhmad, Maulana Riazuddin, Hafiz Akvari, Ayaz Ahmad, Ilyas Ahmad and Ikram Ahmad. The factories are mainly situated in and around Sitapur, Khairabad and Laharpur.

Every Saturday, Monday and Wednesday, *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturers both from these renowned firms and small scale business men gather at the city centre, i.e. Greekganj in Sitapur and sell their goods in the Dari Mandi (*dari* (cotton carpet) market) situated there. On other week days.. the yarn agents come with their yarn samples.

As Sitapur is a large scale manufacturer of cotton mats, therefore business men and dealers not only come in from Sitapur and its surrounding districts, but also from as far as Rajasthan, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh and Kashmir. They come on the market days, go through the samples available and place orders for samples and designs which are then sent by the local businessmen, manufacturers to dealers to their addresses by rail or roadways. Orders which are placed from districts adjoining Sitapur are taken away on the same day by suitable conveyance means. As there are a large variety of *dari* (cotton carpet) to choose from in the *dari* (cotton carpet) market, every customer selects according to his requirements. Some businessmen also purchased *dari* (cotton carpet) from the factories if they were not able to come on market days. However, export quality *dari* (cotton carpet) are not sold in

this market, because, they are of high quality and very finely manufactured, and therefore costlier and this makes them less saleable in the Indian market. Also manufacturers pay special attention to the details of manufacturing of these *dari* (cotton carpet), because the slightest errors renders entire orders to be cancelled.

The firms which manufacture these *dari* (cotton carpet) do not have direct contacts with the exporters. Their link to these exporters are through businessmen or dealers based in Delhi or Panipat. Once the *dari* (cotton carpet) are finished in Sitapur, they are transported by the factory owners to Delhi or Panipat from where they are exported.

The only firm in Sitapur, which is acknowledged at the international as well as the national level is that of Haji Rafeeq Ansari. Also, the uniqueness of this firm lies in the fact that it is the only one of its kind which has direct client – manufacturer relationship with the exporters. Germany, United Kingdom and France are a few of the countries with which this firm has direct market service relationships. Therefore, owing to its popularity and unique position, Haji Rafeeq Ansari contribute to the export of 40 per cent of all export quality *dari* (cotton carpet) manufactured in Sitapur. The sale of all its *dari* (cotton carpet) give this firm a turnover of 25 -30 crores annually. It has a branch office in Delhi, run by a family member. It is here that export orders are dealt with. The exporters provide sample designs to this office which is then readied and brought for checking. After the order is passed it is manufactured and then supplied by aeroplanes to the required destinations

Chapter 4

Socio-Economic Profile of the Factory Owners and Child Labour

Chapter – 4

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE FACTORY OWNERS AND CHILD LABOUR

To obtain the unbiased and detailed information about the socio-economic conditions of factory owners and child labours. I took the interviews of the factory owners and seven indepth case studies were also undertaken. I put the question to the factory owners about their previous and present economic status, how they grow economically and socially and so on.

Child labours were also interviewed and observed with respect to their socio-economic status.

In the first section the socio-economic profile of the factory owners will be discussed along with the socio-economic profile of the child labours.

4.1 Demographic Trends of Respondents

Ansaris constitute 40 per cent of the total Muslim population of the district, and 90 per cent of these Ansaris are in one way or the other related to some aspect of *dari* (cotton carpet) making. About 25-30 per cent of Ansari population make up the portion of factory owners, while the rest are involved in manufacturing.

The average family size of factory owners is seven members. Very few have four-five members. Among the respondents interviewed it was found that most of them (80 per cent) are first generation businessmen, while only around 20 per cent have inherited the businesses from their families. Most of these business owners are young; and are of the opinion that since large number of

people are required to handle the businesses. Therefore they have large families. Out of the total number of factories surveyed, 15 per cent are under Hindu's ownership and they also have large families like those of the Muslims.

4.1.1 Age Trends

At the time of field work it was found that 75 per cent of the respondents are in the age-group 40-50 years, and only 25 per cent of the population came from the age group 26-40 years.

The members of the 25 per cent (i.e. the members who are in the age group of 26-40 years) group do not independently run their factories, rather, they seek consent and guidance from their elders, that is the 75 per cent (the people who are in the age group of 40-50 years) group. At the time of decision making, both the groups have to be present to perform their duties.

The average marriageable age here is 25-30 years for males. According to a respondent, *Rafeeq*, the proper age for males should be 25-30 years and for females 18-24 years at the time of marriage. A marriage at the appropriate time plays a positive role in the development of a new generation. A considerable number of marriages have been taken place between these two broad age groups.

4.1.2 Housing Conditions

Most of the factory owners are concentrated in Pakka Bagh, Qaziara, Sheikh Sarai, Patiya, and Nawan tola areas of old Sitapur. A few factory owners have built their houses in New Sitapur, while some reside in Khairabad and Laharpur. Businesses is not carried out from the houses. The houses are

big, spacious and well maintained. The luxuries of life such as air conditioners, modern cars and other basic necessities such as refrigerators and televisions are found in all these homes. Most of the housing establishments enjoy joint family status. In fact, during the survey of the locality of respondents from this group, it was found that no nuclear families existed. Inside these houses, the families which are basically joint families, enjoy several facilities which are typically the mark of nuclear families, such as separate cooking areas, drawing rooms, vehicles etc.

Although more than 70 per cent of the factory owners have their ancestral plots, it is not at all necessary that they build on this particular land only. As a matter of fact, it was found that 30 per cent of these people had bought their own plots of land to build houses. Although the houses are big and a great emphasis is laid by the owners on their standard of living, the areas around the houses are not usually clean; this is because of their location in the older areas of Sitapur, where the roads and streets are yet to be concretized.

Businesses are carried from factories and godowns which are located away from these houses.

4.1.3 Health

Health gets its due attention by the factory owners. Although many of them have not been inoculated during their childhood, they are aware of and concerned about their children's immunization, and consult experienced doctors. For ailments such as cough, cold, fever, diarrhoea, etc, they consult the best physicians they have in town; and for complicated cases or chronic ailments, they consult doctors in Lucknow and even Delhi. It has been

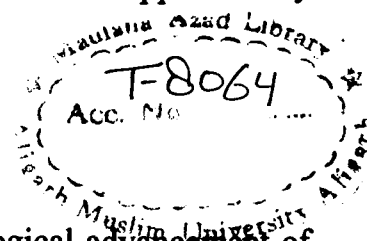
observed that a number of our respondents suffer from heart ailments; some have renal problems while some others suffer from sugar problems. In the past five years, there have been a couple of deaths due to heart and renal problems.

A notable fact was that though these people work in dust infected areas, no evidence of asthma, tuberculosis or bronchitis were found; the reason for this being that manufacturing processes such as weaving, knotting and clipping are not carried out in factory premises. Also, offices for conducting businesses are located in the very front area of the factories. Dyeing, collection and packaging are usually done at near end of the factories. The work done in the factory is supervised once or even twice a day by supervisors appointed by factory owners.

4.1.4 Education Trends

To make an assessment of the social and technological advancement of the factories, the literacy rate of the respondents was examined. The respondents were divided into 3 categories, the first category belonged to those who had received no education at all, the second category was of those who had been to school for some period of time but had dropped out, the last category was of those who had successfully completed their education, and were either graduates or post-graduates.

It was found that around 40 per cent of the respondents came into the first category. They had not received any education and their parents had also not been aware of education and its benefits. However, those who are aware of the benefits of education, but their financial conditions did not allow them to



avail education. When asked as to how they conducted their official paper work, they replied that they had appointed '*munims*' (clerks) for this purpose.

It was found that 35 per cent of people belonged to the second category i.e. those people who had joined school, but had dropped out for one reason or the other. About 95 per cent of these respondents said that they had left off their education to support their parents, in their businesses. Some of these respondents had completed high school, and some had gone upto the intermediate level. None of the respondents had gone to any higher level of education, 5 per cent of this group could not provide accurate information regarding their drop out status.

25 per cent of people interviewed belonged to the third category and they were found to have completed their graduation and postgraduation degrees. These people have received education because their parents had realized the merits and demerits of education. In this category both males as well as females are educated.

4.2 Economic conditions of the Respondents

Economically the respondents were found to be financially strong. Except for a few factory owners, most of the respondents have worked hard to expand their business.

The respondents are economically very strong. They expand their business and thus become financially strong. In this section the previous and present economic status of the respondents will be discussed.

4.2.1. Previous Economic Status

As already mentioned earlier, barring 2-3 respondents, the majority of them have set up their businesses themselves. About 25-30 years ago, the *dari* (cotton carpet) industry was not as well established as it is today, although the district has always been known for its *dari* (cotton carpet). The mode of production differed greatly from the present mode.

In the past, due to shortage of finances, the *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturers dyed the yarn in their houses with the help of their family members. After this, the yarn was distributed to the weavers for weaving. Knotting and clipping was once again done in their homes. Then the completed *dari* (cotton carpet) was sold on cycles in the *Durrie Mandi* (*dari* (cotton carpet market)). Business, then, used to be carried out from homes, and all family members were involved. *Dari* (cotton carpet) making was then a very slow process and hence the production of the *dari* (cotton carpet) was a slow one. However, the factory owners worked hard to improve their economic situations.

Some factory owners took loans from the bank, while some mortgaged their properties. With the money they got, they concentrated on improving their productions. They improved the quality of their yarns, hired skilled workers and increased their numbers to expand their business. They made efforts to increase their contacts with parties which could help them generate more business. They tried to complete their orders on time in order to receive more orders. The profit money generated from their business was put back into the factory for enhancing production.

Gufran, a factory owner, said that in the past business was difficult, and the *dari* (cotton carpet) that he sold did not fetch him the required rates. But when he came into contact with parties from Panipat and Rajasthan, they suggested that he can take loans or mortgage his property to enhance production. Having followed this advice and worked hard, Gufran is now a successful businessman with an annual turnover of more than one crore; and all this is in a span of 20-25 years.

4.2.2 Present Economic Conditions

The present economic conditions of most of the respondents is sound. All the respondents now use their own capital to enhance their business, but sometimes to meet large production, in the beginning, they may use money from the yarn dealers or avail mortgages. Earlier, about 10 years ago, only two or three respondents do export work. But now, about 50 per cent of the respondents have started export work.

Improvement in their financial conditions have led them to educate their children, who then get involved in the family business, thereby finishing the demand for outside help. However, they sometimes still appoint clerks for official work.

Due to increased economic growth, the respondents have a high socio-economic status. Respondents have properties worth crores with many of them having no less than 3-4 four wheelers. They have well established factories and lavish homes. They now use advanced technologies to enhance their production.

Rafeeq Ansari's firm is one which uses advanced techniques. They have a branch in Delhi and have employed a computer engineers to design their *dari* (cotton carpet).

The respondents said that they all tried to improve the quality of their *dari* (cotton carpet), because of the surplus money which they can now utilize for enhancing quality and production. Economically the factory owners have now made themselves very strong.

In the sections which follow; the child labours and their socio-economic conditions have been discussed.

4.3 Socio-Economic Conditions of the Child Labours

The socio-economic background of the child labours is discussed on the basis of information collected during the field work. Various aspects of social and economic conditions of child labour have been taken into account to have indepth knowledge of the prevailing conditions of child labour.

4.3.1 Demographic Characteristics

Ansaris constitute about 70 per cent of the child labour population. The communities of washer men, butchers, barbers and oil pressers constitute the rest of the 30 per cent working population of child labours. It can be observed that at every stage of *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing, the Ansaris play a dominant role, be it as factory owners or middlemen, weavers or child labours. There are two reason which account for this; one is that the Ansaris are in majority in the district; and the second is that they want to bring about the upliftment of their community, so they hire their fellow clansmen, and employ people from other communities only when they have no options available.

The entry level age for child labours into the workforce is 9-14 yrs. None of the respondents surveyed were below 9 years of age. *Dari* (cotton carpet) industry being the dominant industry in this area, it was found that majority of the population was involved in this occupation. 60 per cent of the respondents were found to be involved in the *dari* (cotton carpet) manufacturing, while 40 per cent comprised other works such as embroidery work, agriculture, rickshaw pulling, while still others worked outside the villages.

4.3.2 Housing Conditions

It was found that the housing conditions of the child labours were not good at all; 80 per cent of the child labours lived in Kuchcha houses; 15 per cent of the child labours lived in semi-pucca houses and only 5 per cent lived in completely pucca houses. More than 70 per cent householders lived in their ancestral homes, while 10 per cent of the households were setup by purchasing land. 20 per cent of the workers were found living in rented house. The Kuchcha houses have mud walls with thatched roofs. In semi-pucca houses, only one room and in some houses, the toilets were found to be pucca. And in the pucca houses, one or two rooms, alongwith the toilets were pucca.

Generally, the houses are not so big, most of the houses have one or two rooms, and may be with or without verandahs; a courtyard with toilets was also present; 95 per cent of the houses did not have a proper kitchen. They made use of the courtyard, where there was a wooden stove, for preparing food. They also had makeshift wooden stoves which could be used inside the houses, in case of crisis such as rain and extreme summers and winters; 95 per cent of

the respondents collected firewood from the nearby forests and made use of cow dung as fuel for the stoves.

In remote areas, water facilities are also not adequate. A couple of government hand pipes can be found in such areas. Few houses have installed their own hand pipes, while majority of the respondents use the government hand pipes, wells or neighbour's hand pipes. All family members at times fetch water when it is needed.

The respondents reported to usually sitting and sleeping on the floors. A few of them used beds. In summer, sheets are used for sleeping on, while arrangements were made in winter for warmer sleeping solutions.

Though the majority of the houses are kuchcha, the surroundings of the houses are kept clean, which, however, cannot be adequately maintained in the rainy season.

It was also observed that there was no electric facility at all, although electricity poles have been erected long back. A block, Parsendipurwa, in Laharpur tehsil, still does not have even electricity poles. All respondents used kerosene oils or candle to light up their homes. Due to this unavailability of light, the working hours, depends upon the seasons.

4.3.3 Educational Status of the Respondents

Undoubtedly, education plays an important role in the life of a person. Education is an important tool for developing the personality of a person, and for inculcating social values in him. It is necessary for a healthy society, and is an important ingredient of social development.

The educational status, of child labours, was found to be very low. The children worked during school hours and hence, had no opportunity to attend school. A significant factor discouraging children from attending school is child labour, and short comings of the education system itself (Yadav, 2005).

Although the enrolment ratio of the students increased by 30 per cent in the past few years, but the literacy rate of the respondents did not show any increase.

According to NSSO (1997), attendance rate of the children are poorest (and dropout rate of the school the highest) in the lower per capita expenditure group in rural areas.

Poor education system, lack of awareness among parents of child labours and the involvement of children in the work force are major factors responsible for keeping the children from joining school on a regular basis. Of about 60 per cent of the children enrolled in various schools, only 35.40 per cent attend school regularly. But even the conditions of these students are not so bright. They are not taught properly because the schools are located in remote areas, with very few teachers and improper classrooms.

Due to the government schemes of scholarship and distribution of cereals, enrolment ratio has increased. And although 75 per cent attendance is compulsory, hardly 30-35 per cent students attend school regularly. The rest of the students attend only on and off, but on the days approaching the day of distribution of cereals and scholarships, the attendance rises considerably. The teachers do raise objections but usually relax the rules on the request of the parents of the students.

Despite the increasing trend of enrolment rate, the literacy rate has shown no rise. The drop out rate begins from the first class itself; only 10-15 per cent manage to complete fifth standard. Female education is lower than the male education ratio. Only 20 per cent of girls have joined the school and hardly 5 per cent girls have completed their education upto fifth standard. Parents are least interested in the education of the girl child because of their so-called traditional values and the domestic works that the girls can put in the household.

4.3.4 Health and Hygiene

I concentrated on two aspects of health programmes and health status; the first was the immunization of the children with vaccines such as BCG, Polio and Tuberculosis; and the second was the awareness of these vaccines, and their importance.

From the field study, it was found that 95 per cent of the population were aware of the vaccination but they gave little importance to immunization. They pointed out that it was not possible for them to take their children all the way to the district hospital at Sitapur, they also said that inspite of not being immunized they were leading healthy lives. When asked about oral polio vaccines, they responded that it would affect the fertility of their children (this was found to be a common myth harbored by the illiterates, especially the Muslims).

About 95 per cent of the children were not immunized against any diseases. It was also found that child labours worked in unhygienic conditions, they constantly inhaled dust, because of this they could suffer from tuberculosis, cough and asthma, but they were still not immunized. When asked

if they consulted doctors when they became ill, they replied that for small illnesses, they did not even take medicines; however, if the illness got serious, they took medicines from the medical stores.

The children lacked proper nutritional diet, because children's families couldn't afford it. The children responded that they hardly got milk, eggs etc. for breakfast, they generally had tea with bread and chapattis with vegetables or chutney for the other principal meals. They hardly consumed meat, pulses or rice in their meals. Due to this absence of nutritious diet and presence of heavy workload, the children got malnourished easily.

4.4 Economic Conditions of Child Labours

Having discussed the social aspect of child labours, let us move to the economic conditions of the child labours. In this section, we will deal with the income patterns of the child labour and their families, their land holdings, household conditions, their debt handling and loans.

The economy of Sitapur district is mainly dependent upon agriculture, followed by trade, commerce and industry. Areas far away from Sitapur and its immediate tehsils and blocks are dependent upon agriculture only, while these areas are depend upon trade, commerce and industries. As already discussed in Chapter 2, the business of sugar mills, rice mills and *dari* (cotton carpet) making industries are flourishing here.

The *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry, a major business of this area, is also a huge source of employment although it is an unorganized sector. The industry is also very much responsible for the preponderance of child labours.

For the survey to extract the true nature of economic conditions of child employment, 100 households have been taken up for study, out of which 40 per cent are engaged in the *dari* (cotton carpet) making industry, while the rest are employed in other sectors such as embroidery work, agriculture, and working in dhabas and hotels.

The 60 per cent of child labours who are employed in the *dari* (cotton carpet) making professions are involved in knotting. The age for involvement of children into this profession is usually 9-14 years.

4.4.1 Pattern of Employment and Income

An attempt has been made in this study to attain indepth information about the economic status of child labours; the reasons and means for coming into this profession, collection of wages etc.

Majority of the workers are not directly recruited by the factory owners; either middlemen or supporters are responsible for their employment. Infact, people who are involved in weaving and knotting themselves contact middlemen or suppliers, for employment, because the more they work, the more they will earn.

Children do knotting and clipping either in their homes or outside their houses. Generally children work outside their houses, because knotting and clipping require supervision. Being indirect employees, they usually do not have choices of place of work. It was not found that children below 7 years take up this profession yet.

Children of the age group 9-14 are usually involved in knotting and clipping and not weaving, because the process of weaving requires long legs,

for which the minimum age is 17-18 years. The forceful crossing of the shuttle of the weft thread through the warp requires considerable strength which normally grown ups possess.

The income of these workers vary from child to child. During the peak season the workers earn more, and naturally off season does not see them earning as much. During the peak season, children work for around 10-12 hours to complete the order given. But despite the load in work, children do not receive overtime.

The average income of the children varies monthly from Rs. 600-650. Some children who were beginners earned lesser wages than their senior; because being beginners they didn't work as efficiently as their seniors. The average income of the child workers in the beginners category is about Rs. 300/- per month. So, on an average, the daily income of the child worker is Rs. 10/- per day.

Wages are usually collected by their parents from the employers. The children receive pocket money from their parents, when they want something. Otherwise, the rest of the savings is used to run the household. Most of the children work because they have to help raise their socio-economic condition, to help their family.

Since the parents need even this meager amount earned by the children to run the household, many children become permanent earning members of their family. A child labour, Arif (13 years) says that he earns for his family so as to help them, and that is why nobody has the right to interfere in this activity.

An attempt made to know why parents put their children into the workforce, resulted in the reply that since the parent's incomes were not enough to sustain their household expenditure, the children had to be brought into the work stream.

The average income of the families working in this employment sector ranges from Rs. 2300-2400 monthly. A family with two earning members earn above Rs. 2400-2700. A family with more than two earning members earn between Rs. 2700-3000 in a month. Due to these low wages the parents need additional income, because this will help them in their bid for survival.

4.4.2 Land Holding

Land holding is an important symbol for one's economic status. The majority of the respondents did not have land except those on which these houses were built left to them by their forefathers. Most of their lands were not more than 1½ bighas each. Land holding were poor because people did not have more than what they needed to survive. So, these people are unable to buy land to strengthen their economic conditions.

4.4.3 Debts

Generally, it is assumed that people borrow from the rich when they need money. But in the research area, it was observed that the respondents avoid taking loans from credit societies and banks, because of the heavy interest rates. They say that they are not in economic conditions to pay off their debt at the allotted time, therefore they do not take loans.

Some respondents did take loans from the district industry offices. Such offices offer the respondents carry interests and loan returning schemes. If

the respondents return their loans on time, then they can get subsidies. The *pradhan* of the area plays an active role in helping people get loans from the district industry office.

Some respondents were also found to borrow money from their better off relatives and friends. Sometimes employers also give money to parents of child labours to oblige them to make their children put in more work, but this usually happens during the peak season of *dari* (cotton carpet) making.

Chapter 5

Factors Responsible for Child Labour

Chapter – 5

FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR CHILD LABOUR

Poverty and child labour are contemporary to each other. Since India has an agri-based economy and since 70 per cent of the Indian population live in villages, therefore child labour is found mainly in this field. In poor families a large number of children in a family are considered to be an economic asset rather than a liability.

The problem of child labour is existent not only in our country but all over the world. The latest statistics show that about 250 million child labours exist in the age group 5-14 all over the world. India alone accounts for the largest number of child labours (Bhargava, 2003).

According to the World Bank Report (2000), nearly 6 crores working children are to be found in India; of which at least 1.5 crores are bonded labour. It is a serious shame that when other issues such as that of globalization and information revolution are being highlighted, very little attention is being paid to the issue of child labour. Mishra and Pande (1996) are of the view that the ultimate responsible factor for child labour is widespread poverty. It is this poverty that lets parent leave the child to fend for themselves.

Poverty is not the sole factor responsible for child labour. Other factors such as improper implementation of primary education system, poor schooling system, cheap labour, employer's preferences, poor implementation of legislative measures, large family sizes and parent's poor or no

employment are the other main causes of child labour. It has been found that 37 per cent people believe poverty, 33 per cent say over populated family, 10 per cent say government policy failure, 6 per cent say weak laws, 2 per cent say parents unemployment and 1 per cent say high education and living are responsible for growing child labour (source Internet: Goggle search).

As child labour has a prevalent presence in Sitapur, it is intended, in this research, to cover various statistics and causes regarding child labour in this study. During field work, it was found that child labours are found to be engaged in dhabas, general goods shops, road side waste pickers, household chores and even embroidery work, not to mention the *dari* (cotton carpet) industry.

In the course of research, it was found that social, economical as well as cultural factors are responsible for child labour. Each of these has been discussed below:

5.1 Social Aspects of Child Labour

Child labour are a socially disadvantaged group of society. They are deprived of basic necessities such as education, healthy diet, recreative time etc.

5.1.1 Parent's Illiteracy

Illiterate parents discourage children to attend schools because they lack the awareness of the merits of education. In an analysis made by Geetha (2005), it was found that there was a high incidence of illiteracy with around 50 per cent of them reporting lack of education. Lack of education may have also induced them to send their child to work.

A seminar held in 1977 highlighted the fact that child labour is prevalent extensively in lower socio-economic groups because of the lack of appreciation of the merits of education on their part of the role it plays in leading an improved life (Singh, 1990).

In the research area it was found that education was rarely present and people did not believe its utility in their lives. Moreover, when they can't provide higher education, what is the point of providing even primary education. *Aiyaz's* father believes that since education can't provide much to people like him, they should have skilled labour on their hands. This is why they don't pay attention to education, be it for males or females.

Education is an important tool for nation building. It teaches people social etiquettes. Educated parents plan the futures of their children to the best of their ability. Education makes people bring up children in the right manner. It is an essential tool which makes people capable of leading a normal life.

A high degree of illiteracy is dominant in the research study area and parents also rigidly stood their ground of not wanting to educate their children. Most of the parents believe that like them, their children are born to work, and let them join school on and off, when children do not have much work on their hands. Also, they say that the children's income helps sustain a part of their livelihood. They don't even bother that initially, children earn low wages, because what matters is that the child earns, incomes will always rise.

It is observed from the field that female education is quite low in comparison to that of males. During the research study, there hardly was

found a female who had completed her education, even upto the primary level. Very few had learnt how to recite their holy scripture – the Quran, but majority of them belonged to the group which neither recite Quran nor had completed their primary education.

No male respondents were reported to have completed their education above eighth grade. The error solely lies on their illiterate parents. *Aarif's* parents declared that they had no interest in the education of their children because they had no means of bearing the expenses of higher studies. Also, according to them primary education is a wastage of time because children actually learn nothing in such schools. The parents are also not aware of the merits of education and demerits of work; all they are concerned with is the wages brought in by their children.

5.1.2 Negligence of Parents Regarding the Ill Effects of Child Labour

Since parents don't consider child labour bad, hence, they can be directly held responsible for the ill effects suffered by them. Illiteracy prevents them from taking right decisions about their children. Because of excessive number of children, issues such as health, education, social activities etc. are not paid attention to.

Most of the parents interviewed did not agree with the notion that child labour has an adverse consequence on the child's future. By involving children into the labour force, they believe themselves to have done a wonderful job. Ultimately the child ends up earning, something which he could not do while in school.

Therefore, it is found that parents are very much responsible for the prevalence of child labour.

5.1.3 Improper Implementation of Compulsory Primary Education

Although there is a free provision for education upto primary level, the schemes, however, are not properly implemented, hence, resulting in the improper education patterns of people. Education is a weapon which can be effectively used to tackle the social evil of child labour, but the primary schools fail in providing the kind of education which can brighten the future of the children. The kind of education provided in most educational institutions is of little relevance to the children and does not prepare them in any way for the challenges ahead (Sinha, 1997).

When the level of implementation of the compulsory primary education was researched, with the reason of majority of children being drop out of school, it was found that teachers themselves are not interested in teaching these students. A teacher argued that, when these children ultimately have to earn and work, then why should they at all be coming to school. These children enroll into schools for the sole purpose of earning scholarships and getting cereals, which the teachers claim, they will happily distribute.

Majority of the parents are dissatisfied with the education system, the type of teachers and the entire setup. A significant factor in discouraging children from attending school is child labour and shortcomings of education system (Yadav, 2005).

5.1.4 Poor Education System

Poor education system alongwith the inaccessibility of schools plus an irrelevant and unattractive school syllabus, lack of skilled teachers will be taken up for discussion in this section.

Accessibility of schools is important for the children of remote areas, usually they do not have conveyance means to reach school. Schools are far away from the research areas. Distances make schools unattractive for children as well as parents.

The school curriculum is another unattractive feature of these schools. Most of the contents of the curriculum is irrelevant for poor children, who feel that learning in school is useless since it does not provide skills (Yadav, 2003). Extra curricular activities are almost non-existent in these primary schools and no due time and importance is given to sports and physical activity because of the lack of teachers of the subject.

Primary schools should basically be clean and safe. In the area researched, most of the schools had pucca buildings; the rest had semi pucca or kuccha buildings. Most of the schools in remote areas have only one or two rooms with open verandahs.

Basic amenities like toilets and water are not to found in the entire area. Students generally use nearby fields for toilets; and to drink water, they take permission to go home, and do not come back. Electricity is not present in the schools. Most of the schools almost have no seating arrangements, and students sit on the floors. Though most of the schools have blackboards, they do not have teaching aids such as maps, charts, chalks etc.

Teachers do not use blackboards normally, but they do so during inspection. If the number of teachers in a school is more than one, the teachers engage in conversations. When there is only one teacher in a school, he takes this time to complete his personal work. No kind of discipline is maintained as such in the school.

It is widely understood that the learning ability of a student is greatly dependent upon the teacher's teaching ability. A number of unskilled teachers are employed in primary schools in remote areas. Most are neither B.Ed. nor B.T.C., either they are plain graduates or post-graduates. In North India, especially more than half of these teachers do not have any kind of teacher training qualification (Zachariah, 2005).

Due to lack of proper teaching training, the teachers lack proper communication skills, and cannot interact with students properly.

When a search for presence of incentives to promote education was made, it was found that they are not provided adequately. A provision for scholarship and mid-day meals is there for students with 80 per cent attendance. The scholarship amount is Rs. 300/- student per annum and 3 kg of wheat is to be provided every third month. But students get only 7-9 kg of wheat per annum. This is mainly because of the corruption and greed prevalent in the staff itself. It was found during field study that such schemes are a failure at the grassroot level of upliftment of education. Although these policies have positively affected the enrolment ratio, there have not had any positive effect on the literacy rate of students.

A number of students can be found who have passed significant levels of education but are still unable to read and write properly, and this includes writing their names.

5.2 Economic Aspects of Child Labour

Child labour is to a great extent the result of poor economic conditions. The need to raise the overall income of the family pushes children into the labour force. Family size, economic status, adult unemployment are all factors which are responsible for child labour. These will be discussed below, on the basis of the information acquired during field study.

5.2.1 Family Size

A large family size is one of the major factors responsible for child labour, in general and particularly in Sitapur district. Parents consider children as economic assets rather than responsibility. The reason behind this is the lack of adequate resources. In rural areas of Sitapur, especially in the Muslim society, family sizes are considerably large. Children are not properly attended to and are considered a source of money. The average family size is 8-9. The needs of the family are dependent on the size of the family. When needs rise, expenditures rise, and this is when children are pushed into the workforce, so, the family expenses are meant to be borne by all family members, irrespective of age. This is when children get engaged in work (Bhargava, 2003).

The child labour brings in income, be it any amount, and this helps in raising the overall income of the family.

5.2.2 Economic Status of Child Labour's Family

From the field study it was found that the economic status is usually not good. Majority of the families were engaged in the daily wage system. The people follow varied occupations.

A few years back, the process of *dari* (cotton carpet) making was carried out in the tehsils but due to continuous raids of labour officials, it was shifted to blocks so most of the adult respondents of field study are not involved in *dari* (cotton carpet) making. Because people engaged themselves according to the availability of work they normally went to the proper Sitapur in search of job, they got varied jobs except *dari* making. So they engage themselves in other things such as farming, mechanical work, rickshaw pulling, daily wage labourers etc. Many people even work outside their villages. Due to this moving out, people engage their children in this profession. The belief that if the child becomes a skilled weaver, his work and earnings will flourish make parents engage their children in this work. So, they borrow money from money lenders or creditors to set up one or two looms of their own. Also easy availability of jobs in the *dari* (cotton carpet) industry is responsible for concentration of children in this section.

Low income is a factor which is responsible for a number of hardships faced by families. An attempt was made to study the income of the families surveyed. It was found that families with one earning members have between Rs. 2300/2400 per month; two earning members brought in Rs. 3000/- in a month. Women hardly contribute to the family income some women engage themselves in chikan embroidery.

The field study found that majority of the families live in miserable conditions. They work, otherwise, they have no proper income. Rainy season sees these families face starvation because there is no availability of work. For this reason, majority of the families need whatever their children earn. Withdrawal of these children from the workforce would result in families facing economic crisis.

5.2.3 Adult Unemployment

Adult unemployment is also in a large manner responsible for child labour. Sometimes child labour even replaces adult labour because child labour is comparatively much cheaper, and easier to handle. Children work faster and get lower wages. Adults may raise objections regarding wages and work load and work hours, but children do not do these.

In the field studies, however, it was found that children do not replace adults, because, in the *dari* (cotton carpet) industry, different sections of work are handled by different ages. Here, the adults face unemployment only during non-availability of work, not because of replacement by child labour.

5.2.4 Insufficient Incomes of Adults

This is also a prominent factor for child labour. It was found during field study that majority of the respondents do not have enough resources to meet their basic necessities. So, during times of crisis, which is forever, there, they use their children as earning hands. Children bring in money, and this helps the family to a degree.

5.2.5 Lack of Resources

In rural areas, there is lack of resources of livelihood. Due to these lack of resources , there is hardly any employment opportunity in remote areas. Most of the people engage themselves in either *dari* (cotton carpet) industry or embroidery work. These are the only opportunities they find both of these fields, however, need skill, which majority of the people do not possess. This is because, earlier, these professions did not have much employment prospects, but now things have changed.

However, these professions are not consistent employment provides and hence workers sometimes have work, sometimes they don't. So, in such cases having resources of income which are not permanent prone to be a problem for these temporary workers.

5.3 Cultural Aspects

Among other factors involved, the cultural aspect too is responsible for child labour. It has been believed down the ages that a child should learn the skills present in his family. This tradition also helps in enhancing child labour. This is justified both by the child's parents and his employers.

Children in such setups are believed to be assisting their families, not working. Therefore, they are made to learn the craft as early as possible. Similarly, a cultivators son who does not learn to handle the plough and other instruments at an early age will find it difficult to handle it at a later age (Yadav, 2005).

In the area under research study, the cultural factor was one of the factor dominant in the prevalence of child labour.

5.3.1 Tradition of Learning Family Craft

Dari (cotton carpet) making is a traditional business. People involved in this usually believe that their children should also learn this skill, so they take their children to their work places to develop their interest. Once interest has been developed, it becomes easier for their training.

A respondent, *Saleem's* father says, "that now most of the people send their children to learn this craft, because of increased employment opportunities. If people who are not in this profession, can send their children to learn this skill, then we, who are already init, should also make effort to do so".

In such remote areas, where other employment opportunities are dismal *dari* (cotton carpet) industry can flourish, and hence, child labour have increases by leaps and bound. Parents believe their children to have secure future in this profession. None of the concerned parties, employers, parent or children, see anything wrong it child labour continues (Yadav, 2005).

5.3.2 Prevalence of Cultural Myths about Child Labour

Some myths also result in child labour. Parents feel unduly obliged by employers when their children get work. But, the fact is that employers are only concerned about their profit, they actually maximize the profit in lesser time at cheaper wages.

No evidence, however, is to be found to prove that child labour is necessary to preserve the traditional arts and crafts. There is a myth that only the nimble figures of children can carry out knotting, but in actuality, children do work faster, therefore this myth exists.

It is also a common prevalent myth that child labour cannot be abolished because of economic factors. It is true that child labour exists because of economic factors and is a large problem, but effective laws and the will to remove it can help eradicate child labour.

5.3.3 Parents are the Ones who are Least Concerned about the Ill Effects of Child Labour

It is seen in the area of research study that inspite of telling them about the serious consequences of child labour, people believe that the children are working for themselves and their family and there is nothing wrong in doing . Children can learn skills at a young age only and this will benefit them in adulthood, when they will be able to generate more incomes to sustain a better livelihood.

5.3.4 Increasing Employment Opportunities in Unorganized Sector

It is a well known fact that main concentration of child labour is in unorganized sector. In an unorganized sector children do a variety of jobs in different well known industries of the country. In this sector, there is no union, so there is nobody to fight for their rights. They are continuously exploited by their employers. But it is surprising that neither the labours nor their parents believe that they are being exploited by employers.

5.3.5 Ineffective Enforcement of Legal Provisions

Although, there are a number of constitutional provisions against child labour, they are not properly implemented. Every district has a labour department, but inspections are not carried out properly. Labour officers inspect only those places where child labour is low, they never go to high impact areas.

The provision under child labour prohibition and Regulation Act, 1986, deems that children are not to be allowed to work in hazardous industries. But everywhere, this law is violated.

It was found during the time of field study that due to fear of continuous raids by district magistrates, child labour has shifted from tehsils to blocks. In Sitapur proper, Laharpur and Khairabad tehsils child labour started decreasing from 2-3 years back. A number of employers interviewed said that if they did not give due bribes and commissions to labour inspectors, they were charged with keeping child labours, whether they actually did so or not.

The central as well as state governments have passed a number of laws for child welfare in order to eradicate child labour, but none of these policies, schemes or legislations have been properly implemented. Poor parents willingly involve their children in the labour force. This exists along with the harsh reality that the parents are not willing to put their children into schools, and nor are they willing to stop child labours through proper legislation. They usually harbour the belief that since children belong to them, therefore they have the right to decide their children's futures. And they are the ones to decide as to how and till when they should use children to earn a living for the family.

5.3.6 Employer's Preference for Child Labour

Child labour is cheap labour, and child workers are easy to handle from adult workers who may create demands. But none of the interviewed employees admitted that they employed child labour because they were

cheap. They said that the parents of these children came to them and insisted on having their children put in for work. In such situations, employers usually did not have much options.

But, in actuality, the fact that children can be easily controlled and have no awareness of rights makes children the best options to employ.

Child labour is a great source of profit for such employers, who make children work long hours with low wages. Neither the children nor their families bargain for wages with the employer. These people obliged the parents by giving their children jobs.

5.3.7 Lack of Strong Sense of Responsibility of Government Officials and Political Leaders

Because of a lack of strong sense of responsibilities towards their duties, the government officials and political leaders do very little to eradicate child labour, inspite of the fact that everyone is aware that child labour exists in nearly all hazardous and non-hazardous industries in different regions all over the country.

Labour officials and political leaders ignore the problem of child labour, infact they hide the seriousness of the problem. It is only by firm legislative law implementation that these problems will get eradicated.

Child labour exists because of these economic and social factors. Also, there is a cultural factor involved. Ineffective laws further add to the flourishing of child labour.

Chapter 6

National and International Initiatives for the Elimination of Child Labour

Chapter – 6

NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL INITIATIVES FOR THE ELIMINATION OF CHILD LABOUR

“The service of India means the service of the millions who suffer. It means the ending of poverty, ignorance, disease and inequality of opportunity. The ambition of the greatest man of our generation has been to wipe every tear from every year. That may be beyond us but as long as there are tears and suffering so long our work will not be over”.

(Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru)

Child labour is a multi-dimensional problem and it is too complex in nature, that it can not be abolished by a single approach. Government of India, state governments International Labour Organisation (ILO), UNICEF, various non-governmental organization do a lot of efforts to eradicate child labour from its roots. The government of India had started their efforts to eradicate child labour since independence. Various policies and laws for the eradication of child labour, passed by the government are going to be discussed.

6.1 Government Initiatives for the Eradication of Child Labour

Undoubtedly, law is a framework of society. It is the law which compels the people to maintain a disciplined atmosphere in the society. Nobody can exploit or harm to others due to legal provisions. But it is a bitter truth that inspite of laws to protect the interest of the people, violation of law is seen in the society, there are several laws for the protection of working children, but the fact is that children are exploited every where in terms of wages working hours and working conditions. Government started their efforts

from 1931 at the Karachi Session of Indian national Congress. Its basic features were :

- The state shall safeguard the interests of the industrial worker.
- It will secure for the worker a living wage, healthy conditions, and limited hours of work.
- It will provide a suitable mechanism for the settlement of disputes between employer and workmen.
- It will ensure protection against economic insecurity arising out of old age, sickness, unemployment and death.
- Labour will be freed from serfdom and conditions bordering on serfdom.
- Children of school-going age should not be employed in factories and mines.
- Workers shall have the right to form unions to safeguard their interests.

These highlights of the Karachi Resolution were incorporated in the final report of the labour sub-committee presented to the Indian National Congress in May 1940. The highlight of the report are :

- Working and living conditions of children including hours of work, would be regulated.
- The minimum age of employment of children should be progressively raised to fifteen in correlation with the education system.
- Working hours should be limited to forty-eight hours per week and nine hours per day.

- A mechanism for fixing wages should be established in order to secure for workers a living wage and a minimum wage (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

In 1931, another commission was also formed to enquire the condition of working children. The Whitley Commission report of the Royal Commission on labour in India was shocked by the worst condition of children working in factories and observed that

In many cities, a large number of young boys are employed for long hours, and discipline is strict. Indeed, there is reason to believe that corporal punishment and other disciplinary measures of a reprehensible kind are sometimes resorted to in the case of smaller children. Workers as young as five years of age may be found in some of these places working without adequate meal, intervals or weekly rest days and 10 or 12 hours daily for sums as low as two annas is in the case of those of tenderest years (Rajawat, 2004).

The commission, therefore, appropriately recommended legislation to fit the minimum age for employment of children at a higher level than that obtaining in many industries. In the following years, the minimum age for employment of children was fixed 12 years under the factories Act and 15 years under the Mines Act.

The recommendations of the Royal Commission of labour that were finalized in 1931 came up for discussion in the legislative Assembly and the children (pledging of Labour) Act, 1933 was passed. This is the first statutory enactments dealing with child labour. This law prohibits parents and guardians from pledging the services of a child. The children (pledging of labour) Act, 1933 was followed in quick succession by the employment of Children Act, 1938.

The Employment of Children Act 1938 has so many loopholes, it cannot properly address the problem of child labour and suffered from the following infinities.

- The act did not attempt a formal definition of the child.
- It was unclear and ambiguous in its scope and content in as much as it classified into two Categories for the purpose of prohibition and regulation of their employment. The first Category of children were those below the age of fourteen who were prohibited from working in five occupations listed in the act. The second category was those who had completed 14 years but were below seventeen. They could be employed in the prohibited occupations provided they were allowed a period of rest. (Rajawat, 2004)

Government forms 16 member committee on child labour in 1979 under the supervision of M.S. Gurupadswamy. The government had directed them that, firstly they have inquire the various causes responsible for child labour and also suggest measures to protect children from work.

The committee submitted its report with following recommendations :

- The existing laws relating to prohibition and regulation of employment of children should be consolidated into a single comprehensive code in order to prevent any ambiguity in respect of the basic objectives.
- In case of child labourers, the periodical medical check-ups should be linked up with the national health scheme.

- In the areas where there may be concentration of working children, arrangement should be made for non-formal education.
- In the areas where there are large number of working children, recreational and cultural activities should be provided (Kulshreshtha, 1994).

Labour Ministry were considered these recommendations and felt that health and safety of the children at workplaces need to be ensured and children should be protected from long working hours and night shift.

In the seventh five year plan (1985-90), National development council is of the view that elimination of child labour is not feasible, and the abolition of child labour could only be achieved by improving the condition of the families of child labour. Government have launched a new policy i.e. National Child Labour Policy 1987. A national authority on elimination of child labour was constituted under the chairmanship of union labour minister with secretaries of nine departments of government of India concerned with child labour to oversee the implementation of schemes using the fund. A comprehensive programme of action drawn up to release two million children employed in hazardous nature of work by 2002 A.D. A conference of 62 district collectors was held in September, 1995, to give a final shape to the Action plan. Finally, 76 projects were sanctioned in 76 districts to translate the plan to action known as National Child Labour projects (V.V.G.N.L.I., 1998).

The major objectives of the National Child Labour projects are:

- Stepping up enforcement of child labour laws;
- Non-formal education

- Adult education
- Income and employment generation;
- Special schools;
- Raising public awareness; and
- Survey and evaluation (Mishra and Mishra, 2004)

The principal agency was formed to implement these project, and registered it under the societies Act 1860. The projects are being carried out by local NGOs. Abolition of child labour needs an effective mechanism, which actively participates and provide inputs for policy formulations.

A child labour unit was set up in V.V. Giri National Labour Institute 1990 in order to properly address this multi-fold problem. This unit was further promoted to the National Resource Centre on Child Labour (NRCCL) in March 1993. The main aim of the promotion of child labour unit as a National Resource Centre on child labour is to assist central and state governments, non-governmental organizations, policy makers, legislators and social groups. The NRCCL is funded by labour ministry, government of India and UNICEF.

National Resource centre on child labour has built up an impressive and one of the largest documentation on child labour and is now assisting the Ministry of Labour in the implementation of child labour projects. The NRCCL has set two kinds of goals for itself. The long term goal includes to establish Regional Network Centres and to identify partners in Asian countries. The centre's short term goal is to establish centres in states with high concentration of child labour (V.V.G.N.L.I., 1998).

Research and training are the two main features of the NRCCL. But inspite of this NRCCL do various jobs like documentation and dissemination, publication, workshops, networking, and seminars etc. NRCCL research always tries to explore the new aspects of child labour and create greater awareness on the nature, magnitude and dimensions of child labour and it also provides technical support services to various agencies like trade unions, non-governmental organizations, universities and others engaged in the implementation of child labour projects. The centre provides latest data on aspects of child labour form its researches through its various publication. The NRCCL has its close collaboration with International labour organization, UNICEF, state labour institutes, NGOs, trade unions, employers organizations and judiciary.

The centre has established a network with about 400 NGOs in assisting them through various ways of implementing child labour programmes. Apart from the NRCCL, the institute has set up a legal studies cell in September 1997, with a view to provide legal support services on child labour to national and state governments, policy makers, legislators and social groups. The main activities of the cell are

- To review the existing child labour laws;
- To conduct training or legal aspects of child;
- To examine the structure of enforcement system on child labour;
- To collect, analyse and disseminate information on judgements, orders and laws relating to child labour;

To provide legal support to prosecute or take on appeal a few cases relating to violation of laws on child labour (V.V.G.N.L.I., 1998).

All the laws passed by the government of India from 1957 of Karachi session of Indian national Congress for the betterment of child labour seem to have had very little impact to combat children from work. Then government of India had introduced a new child labour prohibition and Regulation 1986 and has passed in both the houses of parliament in order to prohibit children from hazardous occupations/processes and this bill mentioned the hazardous work/processes, because before this, there is no procedure laid down in any law, which specified that certain types of work are dangerous for children, and children should be prohibited from those work.

The statement of objects and reason in the bill reads :

There are a number of Acts which prohibit employment of children below 14 years in certain specified employment. However, there is no procedure laid down in any law for deciding in which employments, occupations or processes the employment of children should be banned. There is also no law to regulate the working conditions of children in most of the employments where they are not prohibited from working and are working under exploitative conditions.

The Bill attempts to achieve the following objectives :

- Ban the employment of children, i.e. those who have not completed their fourteenth year in specified occupations and processes.
- Lay down a procedure to decide modifications to the schedule of banned occupations or processes.

- Regulate the conditions of work of children engaged in forms of employment in which they are permitted to work.
- Prescribe enhanced penalties for employment of children engaged in forms of employment in which they are permitted to work.
- Prescribe enhanced penalties for employment of children in violation of the provisions of this act and other acts that forbid of the employment of children.
- Establish uniformity in the definition of child in laws concerning them.

This bill generated a lively debate in the Indian parliament. The members had also expressed apprehensions and reservations regarding the following :

- Past experience shows that labour laws are never implemented. The child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act will become yet another exercise in futility.
- Hazardous work does not become safe merely because it is performed at home.
- Any scheme of exemption provided in a law is bound to be misinterpreted and misused.
- The intention of government should be not to regularize child labour merely because it exists.
- A one-sided and half-hearted approach of banning child labour in few establishments and regulating it in few others without adopting a holistic or integrated approach, without solving the problem of poverty and

economic deprivation, without enforcing the minimum wages Act, without resolving the problem of universal enrolment and retention of all children of school going age in the formal school system will serve little purpose.

6.1.2 The Violation of the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation Act) 1986

The proviso to section 3 of the act has resulted in large scale misinterpretation and misuse of the provisions of law, and is per se misconceived. The nature of a hazardous occupation does not change merely because it is performed at home or in any part of the residential premises with the help of the family members. The beedi industry, with its rolling, labeling and packing operations, is a hazardous occupation. The continuous bending causes backache; continuous inhalation of tobacco is harmful to the respiratory system, and none of these problem is minimized because the operations are carried out a home. Widespread poverty and the dearth of other more worthwhile and lucrative occupations have driven millions of families to take to beedi rolling. The same applies to carpet weaving which entails sitting in a particular posture for long hours, in an unhealthy environment, subjecting the worker's fingers to continuous strain at a time when they should be used for writing and arithmetic. The logic and rational of granting exemption under proviso to section 3 is, therefore, not easily established. Section 10 and 16(2) provide for determination of age of the child in the case of any dispute regarding age. According to section 10, in the event of any dispute regarding the age of a child between the inspector and the occupier, the question should

be decided on the basis of a certificate of age provided by the prescribed medical authority to whom such an issue has to be referred for decision. This is a provision of the law that is most difficult to implement. The inspector represents the prosecution and the Acts puts the onus of proving age on the prosecution. The inspector appointed as such under the law is not only required to inspect the establishment, observe and record acts of omission and commission on the part of the employer in regard to violation of the statutory provision on employment of children but also to record the age of the children employed and establish their ages before the trial court with the help of the prescribed medical authority.

According to an interpretation of the law provided by a competent legal authority, section 10 should be read to mean that it is upto the inspector to adduce such evidence as he deems fit to underscore his reasons for not accepting the age shown by the occupier, and in the absence of a certificate of age from the prescribed medical authority for obtaining his certificate. The prescribed medical authority is required, in turn, to take into account the material made available by the inspector on the basis of which the latter has formed his opinion, when certifying the age of the child. This merely means that when the court is unable to reach a definite conclusion on the basis of evidence already produced by the inspector and the occupier in accordance with the rules of evidence, then the opinion of the prescribed medical authority has to be obtained as an aid in deciding the question of age. There is no further requirement or restriction in section 10 on the power of the court to determine the disputed age of the child. Section 10 has to be read with sub-section 2 of sec. 16. This provision specifies that a certificate of age granted by the

prescribed medical authority shall, for the purpose of the Act, be conclusive evidence of the child's age. This provision means that the court's power to determine the child's age is taken away by sub-section [2] of sect. 16 declaring a medical certificate to constitute conclusive evidence. There is no satisfactory system of recording the births and in the absence of this, particularly in rural areas, it is extremely difficult to determine the age of a child precisely. Callous and unscrupulous establishments employing children below 14 years often tend to take advantage of this lacuna. They in collusion with the prescribed medical authority, obtain a falsified certificate. This creates enormous problems for the courts, for they are obliged to treat the medical certificate as conclusive evidence under sub sect. 2 of section 16 of the act (Rajawat, 2004).

In spite of various loopholes in child labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act it still work as a principal enforcement for combating child labour. There are so many laws which prohibit children from work like Factories Act 1948, Plantation Labour Act, 1951, Merchant Shipping Act, 1951, Mines Act 1952, Motor Transport Workers Act 1961, Apprentices Act 1961, Beedi and Cigar workers (conditions of Employment) Act 1966 are not so much concerned to withdraw children from work.

6.1.2 A Proviso to Section 3 of the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986

According to a correct interpretation of the law, the house of the person employed for this purpose is not a 'workshop' of the 'occupier' within the meaning of the proviso to section 3 and Members of the family who assist the employees home are not covered by the 'expression his family' in the

proviso. If such an interpretation is accepted, the weakness attributed to the proviso to section 3 is invalid.

In the manufacturing of beedies a beedi (local cigarette) contractor or sub-contractor hands over the raw materials (tendu leaf, tobacco) to the persons employed for the purpose of rolling beedies and permits them to take the raw materials to their homes to roll instead of rolling them in the premises of the manufacturers (occupier). The same is true in carpet weaving. Children may weave carpets at home along with other members of the family but they do so using raw materials delivered to them by the contractor/subcontractor or any other agent of the manufacturer.

Most state governments/union territories, and district administrations tend to include jobs, operations and processes that are carried out within a residential premise as falling within the purview of the proviso to section 3 and tend to extend the protection to workers who are engaged in these jobs, operations and processes that are logically not extendable.

6.1.3 The Minimum Wages Act

The minimum wages act was introduced in 1948 with the objective of fixing, reviewing, revising and enforcing the minimum rates of wages relating to scheduled employments to be notified under the law by the appropriate government, i.e. central and state. The intention of the act is to fix minimum rates of wages in employments in which the labour force is vulnerable to exploitation, i.e. is not well organized and has no effective bargaining power. 'Minimum wage' has not been defined in the act.

The minimum wage represents the basic subsistence wage below which no employer can go although nothing prevent him from paying above this statutorily notified wage. According to the judgement of supreme court, an industry or industrial establishment does not have the right to exist if it cannot guarantee payment of the minimum wage.

The following five norms recommended by the Indian Labour Conference in its 15th session held at Nainital for fixation and revision of minimum wages.

- Three consumption units for one earner.
- Minimum food requirement of 2700 calories per average Indian adult.
- Clothing requirements of 72 yards per annum per family.
- Rent corresponding to the minimum area provided for under the government's industrial housing scheme.
- Fuel, lighting and other 'miscellaneous' items of expenditure to constitute 20 per cent of the total minimum wage.

The honourable Supreme Court of India in its judgement in the case *Reftakos Brett and Co. vs. Others*, Civil Appeal No. 4336 of 1991, held that the following should be added to the names and criteria already recommended by the ILC :

- Children's Education;
- Medical requirement;
- Minimum recreation;
- Provision for old age;
- Marriage.

There are, however, two provisions in the law that have a direct relevance to child labour and which, in the context of our thinking on the issue, are not conducive to the central objective of elimination of child labour. These are sub-section 3 of section 3(a) and Rule 24 are the following

(3) In fixing or revising minimum rates of wages under this section:

(a) different minimum rates of wages may be fixed for:

- (i) different scheduled employments
- (ii) different classes of work in the same scheduled employment;
- (iii) adults, adolescents, children and apprentices.

Rule 24

Number of hours of work which shall constitute a normal working day

The number of hours which shall constitute a normal working day shall be :

- (a) In the case of an adult, nine hours;
- (b) In the case of a child, four and a half hours (Rajawat, 2004)

6.2 International Labour Organisation's efforts for child labour Elimination

International labour organization is considered as an international agency concerned with child labour as a specialized agency of United Nations organizations. It came into existence after the first world war in 1919 as part of the league of Nations with the objectives of eradicating child labour.

The basic objective of the ILO is the betterment of labour by ensuring international cooperation for some minimum and uniform standards. The

ultimate aim of abolition of child labour is not only consistent with its basic objectives and policies, it is an integral part of it (Kulshreshtha, 1994).

The ILO adopted its first convention on child labour in the very year of its inception i.e. 1919. The minimum Age (Industry) convention 1919 (No. 5) sets the minimum age for regular industrial work, excluding family enterprise and technical schools, at 14. In 1937, this convention was revised and the minimum age was raised to 15.

Table 6.1

ILO Minimum Age Conventions, 1920-65

S.No.	Occupation	Convention	Minimum age
1	Seamen	No. 71920	14
		No. 581936	15
2.	Agriculture	No. 101921	14 (Except out of school hours)
3.	Mining	No. 1231965	16
4.	Non-industrial	No. 331932	14 (but allows children over 12 to be employed outside of school hours on light work)

A detailed analysis of the ILO conventions on the employment of child labour and young persons, the aims and objectives of these international standards, whether the conventions have been ratified by India and the reasons for their non-ratification is given in Table 6.2 (Mishra, 2000).

Table 6.2**ILO Conventions**

S.No.	Title of the Convention	Aim	Status of ratification
I.	Convention no. 5: Minimum age (Industry) 1919	To prohibit employment of children under the age of 14 in any public or private industrial undertaking	Ratified on 9.9.55
II	Convention no. 10: Minimum age (Agriculture) 1921	To provide that children under the age of 14 may not be employed or work in any public or private organizational undertaking or any branch thereof save outside the hours fixed for school attendance	Not ratified, because of lack of resources which will be required for its implementation, as it is related to a vast and unorganized field.
III.	Convention no.33: Minimum age (Non-industrial employment) 1932	To provide that children under 14 or those over 14 years who are still required by national laws or regulations to attend primary school shall not be employed in any employment to which this convention applies	Not ratified, because a latter convention on the subject has come into force
IV.	Convention no.59: Minimum age (Industry) (Revised) 1937	To prohibit employment of children under the age of 15 in any public or private industrial undertaking.	Not ratified, because of variations in the nature of wide spread mines and lack of effective system of medical examination.
V	Convention no.60: Minimum age (Non-industrial employment) (Revised) 1937	To provide that children under 15 years or children over 15 years who are still required by national laws or regulations to attend primary school shall not be employed in any employment to which this convention applies.	Not ratified, because the subject matter is primarily of the state's concern whose laws on shapes and commercial establishments vary with one another, and, therefore, a national consensus on the issues involved is called for.
VI.	Convention no.123:	To provide that persons	Ratified on 20.3.75.

	Minimum age (Underground work) 1965	under 16 years of age shall not be employed or work underground in mines.	
VII.	Convention no.:138 Minimum age 1973	The convention relates to the abolition of child labour. The minimum age for admission to employment or work shall be not less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling (normally not less than 15 years). Developing countries may, however, initially specify a minimum age of 14 years.	Not ratified, because there is absence of an omnibus provision fixing a minimum age of entry to employment.
VIII	Night Work convention no.6: Night work for young persons (Industry) 1919	Abolition of night work for young persons in any public or private industrial undertaking. The provisions of the Convention have been modified for India.	Ratified on 14.7.21.
IX	Convention no.79: Night work for young persons (Non-industrial occupation) 1966	To provide that children under 14 years of age who are admissible for full time or part time employment and those over 14 who are still subject to full time compulsory school attendance shall not be employed nor work at night during a period of at least 14 consecutive hours including an interval between 8 p.m. and 8 a.m.	Not ratified, because it requires review at the national level of various state enactments relating to shops and commercial establishments.
X	Convention no.:124 Medical examination of young persons (Underground work), 1965, Seafarer's conditions for admission for employment	To provide that a thorough medical examination and periodic re-examination at intervals of not more than one year for fitness for employment shall be required for the employment or work in underground mines of persons under 21 years of age.	Not ratified, because of its wide coverage.

I	Convention no.15: Minimum age (Trimmers, stokers) Convention 1921	To prohibit employment of young persons of below 18 years at trimmers and stockers in port. If persons of over 18 years are not available then young persons between 16 and 18 can be employed. Trimmers/stockers below 16 years can be employed, subject to medical fitness, in the coastal trade of India.	Ratified on 20.11.22
II	Convention no.16: Medical examination of young persons (Sea) Convention 1921	Young persons under 18 years of age can be employed on any vessel on the production of a medical certificate attesting fitness for such work.	Ratified on 20.11.22.

Convention No. 138, coupled with recommendation No. 146, is the most comprehensive international instrument and statement on child labour. Convention No. 138 applies to all areas of economic activity (factories, mines, plantations, the sea etc.) regardless of whether the clutches are employed for wages or not convention No. 138 has three articles, which are the following.

Article 1 – Each member for which this convention is in force undertakes to pursue a national policy designated to ensure the effective abolition of child labour and to raise progressively the minimum age for admission to employment or work to a level consistent with the fullest physical and mental development of young persons.

Article 2 – The minimum age specified in pursuance of paragraph 1 of this article shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and on any case, shall not be less than 15 years.

Article 3 – The minimum age for admission to any type of employment or work which by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out is likely to jeopardize the health, safety or morals of young person shall not be less than 18. The main drawback of the convention No. 138 is that it does not speak about a single minimum age, rather it speaks of various minimum ages depending on the type of employment and work (Mishra, 2000).

Table 6.3
Minimum Age of Entry to Employment in accordance with Convention No.138

S.No.	General Minimum Age	Light work	Hazardous work
1	In normal circumstances, 15 ⁴ (not less than compulsory school age)	13 years	18 years (16 years conditionally)
2.	Where economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed	12 years	18 years (16 years conditionally)

The convention no. 138 contains flexible provisions and saving clauses. The figures present a very disappointing picture with regard to its ratification. By 1979 only 13 countries had ratified it and by 1988 this figure rose to 36 (Fyfe, 1989).

Besides these convention and recommendations, the ILO has adopted a number of resolutions relating to protection of children and young persons. One of them is one of the 1945 by which the ILO has endeavoured to draw the attention towards the need of maintenance, health, education, employment, protection and general welfare of children and young persons (Kulshreshtha, 1994).

6.2.1 International Labour Organisation's Efforts to Combat Child Labour

International labour organization has adopted three strategies to combat child labours. The first strategy was legislative phase (1919 to 1973). During this phase the ILO was completing their standards upto convention 138 and recommendation 146, with the present doctrine in this area. The second strategy was that, the ILO, through their publications and meetings, exposed the problem publicly by denouncing abuses committed and highlighting the results of certain positive actions. In their third strategy i.e. more recently, the ILO have been involved in a technical consistence phase to help member states who ask for it.

One of the principal ways in which the ILO has tried to combat child labour is through the adoption and application of international labour standards and secondly through International programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) with the launching of this programme, which is operational since 1992, the ILO has embarked on a course of action to put an end to this problem.

6.2.2 International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

International labour organization launched IPEC with an aim to progressively eliminate child labour worldwide. India was the first country to join the programme in May 1992. The IPEC became fully operational in late 1992 when India, Brazil, Kenya, Thailand, Turkey and Indonesia signed it. IPEC is operational in 30 countries (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

The IPEC gives priority to the eradication of the most abusive and exploitative types of child labour. It is rightly considered as the ILOs “Operational arm” in the fight against child labour. The IPEC is flexible in responding to the country’s needs in addressing their specific child labour (Joseph, 1992-95).

Its strategy rests on the commitment of individual governments to address child labour in cooperation with employers and workers organizations, non-governmental organization and the media, in a broad social alliance. A government’s will and commitment to do so are expressed in its signing of a memorandum of understanding with the international labour organization (International labour review).

6.2.3 Aims and Objectives of IPEC

The main aim of IPEC is the elimination of child labour in a phased manner. It can be done in two ways. Firstly, by strengthening the capability of countries to deal with the problem and secondly, by promoting a worldwide movement to combat child labour. Eventually, this problem can be solved only from within the countries themselves. Thus ILO-IPEC strives to do certain things. Some of them are

- To support national efforts in order to combat child labour and to build up a permanent capacity to tackle the problem.
- To give priority to the eradication of the most hazardous and exploitative types of child labour (IPEC Filer)

The objectives of this programme were :

- To contribute substantially in the long term to the elimination of child labour in a selected group of countries;
- To enhance the capability of the member states so that they can design and implement policies and programmes to effectively protect working children and combat child labour.
- To increase awareness of member states and the international community as a whole as to the dimensions and consequences of child labour and national obligations under international law.

Keeping these objectives in mind, the activities were set, accordingly, in the wider context and the activities were linked to the transitional process of regulation and protection of working children, this came down to a two-track approach: firstly, to provide support where the political will to act existed, secondly, to help mobilize and exert pressures within countries where this was not the case. It was expected that NGOs would play a leading role in national campaigns alongside employees and workers organizations (IPEC, 1994).

So far as India is concerned, the IPEC programme is guided by a national steering committee. The chairman of which is the secretary, Ministry of Labour under IPEC, India has undertaken certain important initiatives, some of which are as follows :

- Rehabilitation of about one lakh working children employed in hazardous and other extremely adverse conditions across the country;
- Sensitizing trade unions in the country to the evils of child labour and motivating them to play a prominent role against it.

- Making government and non-government agencies, semi-government institutions, autonomous bodies, etc. aware of how important an area of concern it is and building up their capacity to tackle the problem;
- Conducting research studies to understand the implications of child labour and documenting them;
- Training labour inspectors on the effective enforcement of child labour laws, training NGOs and institutions on various aspects relating to child labour, including the design, management, and evaluation of projects for its elimination.
- Mobilizing employers and their organizations against child labour and sensitizing them against employment of children;
- Setting up a child labour cell in the National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD), Hyderabad to assist the central and state government in introducing policy changes to combat child labour in rural areas, training elected personnel and officers of related departments, and developing the capability of the NIRD to conduct action research and undertake the evaluation of child labour projects;
- Integration of a child labour component in joint government of India – UN projects on primary education.
- Developing training packages to promote sustainable income generation activities for mothers of children rehabilitated from (particularly, intolerable and exploitative) work to substitute the fall in family income on account of withdrawal of the child from work etc (Mishra, 2000).

6.2.4 Preventive Measures of ILO-IPEC

The ILO-IPEC has established three priority target groups in order to achieve the ultimate goal of eliminating child labour, which is already in progress. The three priority target groups are:

- Those children who are in hazardous working conditions and occupations.
- Those who are very young working children (under 12 years of age)
- Those children who are in hazardous working conditions and occupations

(Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

6.2.5 The Working of IPEC Programme

So far as the working of IPEC programme is concerned, it pursues a phased, multi-sectoral strategy, beginning with the “situational analysis” of the nature and magnitude of child labour in a given country. Assistance in policy design, institution building, awareness raising, development and application of protective legislation and support to direct action are some of the subsequent steps involved in the working of the IPEC (International Labour Review, 1997).

With regard to the implementational aspect, it can be said that the IPEC was implemented in a highly decentralized manner. The best way to strengthen the capacity of partner organizations, as per ILO-IPEC’s thinking, is to apply a phased and multi-sectoral strategy against child labour so as to establish an international climate conducive to action. This would include the following: the collection and dissemination of statistical information, the networking of government agencies, social partners and NGOs, advocacy through mass media

and targeted at policy makers, improved coordination with international agencies, and an international exchange of views and experiences (IPEC, 1994).

The National Steering Committees were to look into the development of national programmes. The day to day implementation of the national programmes and the preparation of information for the National Steering Committee was done by the national programme coordinator. He was supervised by the director of the ILO Area office and worked under the technical guidance of IPEC at headquarters.

Another body known as the programme steering committee (PSC) was created to review the general strategy of IPEC and of national programmes. The committee also examine a work plan and budget for a period of two years. The PSC receives annual reports submitted by the office and suggest priorities for the programme. The PSC consist of one representative of the ILO and the donors, one participating countries representative, one employer and worker representative and observers from UNICEF and UNESCO (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

Under the IPEC, a wide variety of interventions was devised. But rehabilitation of child labour through non-formal education was given a central place. Accordingly around one lakh working children were rehabilitated under various non-formal education programmes, largely implemented by NGOs. An evaluation of the IPEC conducted in 1999 are the following.

In most of the schools the child were found happy and eager to learn. This is reflected in a significantly higher (96-98 per cent) level of attendance as

well as retention in these schools. The implementation of these programmes has also demonstrated that the beneficiaries and their families were willing to accept adjustments to the consequential income losses (Mishra, 2000).

The evaluation team further found that the IPEC had a significant impact on child labour in the country through a variety of interventions. Both IPEC and the national programme on child labour have reinforced each other. As a result, “the issue of child labour has been brought to the national forefront and a more conducive climate has been created to tackle this problem” (Mishra, 2000).

IPEC has further sharpened its focus on priorities, it has launched a new programme “Action against the most intolerable” forms of child labour (AMIC) during 1997-2001. AMIC specifically supports those programmes which aim at the immediate eradication of bonded child labour; the commercial sexual exploitation of and trafficking in children; child labour in domestic service; child labour in dangerous industries, occupations and working conditions.

There are two categories of IPEC programmes (a) action programmes and (b) Mini programmes. The action programmes deals with specific issues. Under this programme education (part time or full time) is provided in non-formal education centres. The main aim of these programme is to strengthen the capabilities of institutions and partner groups in order to sustain efforts towards the elimination of child labour. Most of these programmes were implemented through NGOs. On the other hand the main aim of mini programmes is to help partner organizations to carry out preparatory activities

(surveys, training or meetings) for possible future action programmes, awareness raising activities and evaluation and audits of IPEC activities (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

6.3 UNICEF and Child Labour

UNICEF is working as a principal agency for child labour because of its specific responsibility for child labour welfare. It urges on the need of giving priority to efforts for the immediate elimination of hazardous and exploitative child labour and urgent support for education, so that children may acquire the knowledge and skills that can enable them to improve their lives. Besides, it also stresses on the need for basic services, social development strategies, income generation measures and legal protection for children, their families and communities (Summary of UNICEF, 1996).

Over the years, the international approach to children has changed dramatically. The initial idea that children have special needs has given way to the conviction that children have same set of rights which the adults have. These rights are civil and political, social, cultural and economic and are termed as human rights. Since child labour has been treated as a human rights issue, it becomes pertinent to point out the various United Nations pronouncements on human rights relating to child labour. These pronouncements are:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948
- The International Covenant on Human Rights, 1966
- The Supplementary Convention on the abolition of slavery, 1956

- The convention for the suppression of the traffic in persons and of the exploitation of prostitution of others, 1949
- The Declaration of the Rights of the Child, 1959

In order to take up the human rights dimensions of child labour, effectively, the NGOs have lobbied United Nations Agencies (particularly UNICEF) to pay more attention to the issue (Fyfe, 1989).

The twin movements on behalf of children – one based on ‘rights’ and the other on ‘needs’ have come together and formed one whole. The ‘rights’ approach focuses on those who are disadvantaged by denial of specific legally constituted rights. But reaching children with ‘basic needs’ – under the terms of the convention, on the rights of the child – target a virtually identical group. Those who are disadvantaged by unmet rights and those who are disadvantaged by unmet needs are ultimately the same children.

Children do a variety of work in widely divergent conditions and this work can become exploitative also especially when child labour involves:

- Full time work at too early an age;
- Too many hours spent working;
- Work that leads to undue physical, social or psychological stress;
- Inadequate pay and too much responsibility;
- Work in bad conditions;
- Work as a slave or bonded labour
- Work that hampers access to education; and

- Work that retards full social and psychological development (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

These exploitative kinds of work endangers child's development from the following angles:

- Physical development – including overall health, coordination, strength, vision and hearing;
- Cognitive development – including literacy, numeracy and acquisition of knowledge necessary to normal life;
- Emotional development – including adequate self-esteem, family attachment, feelings of love and acceptance;
- Social and Moral development – including a sense of group identity, the ability to cooperate with others and the capacity to distinguish right from wrong (Bequele and Myers, 1995).

Besides all these, they are also vulnerable psychologically. They suffer devastating psychological damage especially in an environment where they work as slaves or bonded labour and where their self-esteem and dignity is undermined. All the sufferings and exploitations can be tackled with the help of education. Education helps a child development cognitively, emotionally and socially. UNICEF believes that education can be taken to child workers more directly. UNICEF considers that child exploitation is not an accident, rather it is done purposely. In certain industries, like the carpet industry and in electronic assemblies, children are employed because of the dexterity of their small fingers.

UNICEF has evolved two approaches towards improving the lives of working children.

- Using legal instruments to limit and define the conditions under which children work;
- Transforming the nature of work itself

So far as UNICEF India's position is concerned, it aims to abolish child labour within a specific period of time in a phased manner. The UNICEF India policy on child labour is given below.

- All forms of child labour should be eliminated to comply with agreed child rights.
- The enactment and enforcement of legislation to make primary education compulsory is a pre-requisite for the elimination of child labour.
- The modification and enforcement of existing legislation on child labour is a necessary, supportive measure for the elimination of child labour.

UNICEF seeks to strengthen non-governmental alliances which are effective in drawing public attention to the issue and generating social mobilization for the elimination of child labour.

UNICEF advocates a comprehensive strategy against hazardous child labour including compulsory education for children and employment for parents. UNICEF's overall strategy is based upon advocacy for government to adopt and pursue former policies to eliminate child labour and promote compulsory primary education and for industry itself to respond constructively

to presume to replace child with adult labour. The strategy further seeks to develop and strengthen new alliances with NGOs, industry, external agencies, media, academics and advocates, which may bring innovative approaches to bear on the removal of children from the workplace. UNICEF is willing to support the initiatives of state governments to enforce compulsory primary education in districts of concentration of child labour. UNICEF advocates for revision of Child Labour Act, as it has certain loopholes, and suggests that government should introduce more rigorous enforcement procedures (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

6.4 Non-Governmental organization's Efforts of Child Labour

Non-governmental organization's acting as an important body in the elimination of child labour. The main characteristics of NGOs programme are that they have health and nutrition components, non-formal education, vocational training, recreational facilities.

The NGOs are independent of statutory authority and their policies are framed and controlled by their own members. The thought and action of these NGOs aim at the creation of such a society where good life shall be possible for all (Sachchidanand, 1981).

NGOs are neither government contractors, nor substitute for government, nor competitors of governmental actions. NGOs are important partners and collaborators of government and should be viewed as such. They generally organize themselves at various levels as groups and are prepared to accept responsibility for social action and to devote time and energies to achieve their objectives by means of democratic social action outside the

machinery of government. They try to bring about a structural transformation and social revolution (Mishra, 2000).

NGOs like the anti-slavery society, have produced some of the best documented country studies of child labour. Some other NGOs like the Geneva based Defence for child international have taken up the human rights dimension of child labour (Fyfe, 1989).

NGOs are actively involved in the elimination of child labour not only in India, but also abroad they are working for the integrated development of children and the elimination of child labour and also for the universalisation of elementary education . Some of the NGOs, which are working for the elimination of child labour are given below:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------|------------------|
| * Lok Jumbish | - Rajasthan |
| * Mamidepudi Venkatranghaiya Foudnation | - Andhra Pradesh |
| * Ekalavy | - Madhya Pradesh |
| * CREDA | - Uttar Pradesh |
| * Theatre Action Group | - Delhi |
| * Indian Council for Child Welfare | - Delhi |
| * Butterflies | - Delhi |
| * SEWA | - Lucknow |
| * Delhi Council for Child Welfare | - Delhi |

All the above mentioned NGOs differ widely in their approaches, strategies and philosophies, but their ultimate goal is one i.e. complete abolition of child labour from the country.

6.4.1 Working Strategies of the Non-Governmental Organisations

The working strategy of the some NGOs are going to be discussed in detail.

The M.V. Foundation is based in Ranga Reddy district of Andhra Pradesh, was established in 1981. The main objective of the foundation is to eliminate child labour. According to the M.V. Foudnation, a child labour is one who is not part of the school system. This is regardless of whether the children are engaged in wage work or non-wage work, are self-employed or working for others; or engaged in hazardous or non-hazardous occupations; are earning a daily wage or are employed on a contract basis. So far as the funding is concerned, the foundation has a unique method, i.e. every month a nominal amount on each ration card is collected. The accumulated money is known as school development fund and it provides infrastructure like school building, benches and blackboards for the education of the child labourers in the area. The foundation does not encourage Non-formal education (Bhargava, 2003).

According to Santha Sinha, of M.V. Foundation, its greatest failure is in its assumption that working children can not be withdrawn from work while the fact, there is an unfulfilled demand for formal education even among poor in rural areas has been totally denied (Bhattacharya, 2002-03).

So far as the children are concerned, they are no longer working, rather they are studying. Those children who have been withdrawn from work and are

studying, are acting as resource persons in the campaign against child labour. Parents have changed their attitude now and they are willing to invest in their children's education and are no longer dependent on their education.

Lok Jumbish a Rajasthan based NGO working towards universalisation of elementary education. It encourages people's participation and works towards the empowerment of women through education. Lok jumbish has initiated **Sahejshiksha** (non-formal education), under this programme a child is allowed to learn at his/her own pace. These kind of schools have been established in those areas where schools do not exist or where teachers do not go regularly due to distances. These programmes are funded by SIDA, central and state governments (Bhargaja, 2003).

Arunodhaya, a Chennai based NGO established in 1942, is a centre for working children and works for the cause of child workers. The basic objective of this centre is to work towards changing the hazardous and exploitative situation of child workers and to provide protection and assistance to those child labourers who have been victims of various forms of abuse and exploitation (Brochure of Arunodhaya).

Arunodhaya runs special schools, where children are trained by the staff of the NGO and once they get equipped with the lessons, they are enrolled into the formal schools by the NGO. These special schools are run with the aim provided by the child relief and you (CRY) and the ILO. After enrolling the child laborers into the formal school system, the NGO keeps a check on them in the sense that whether they are attending the formal school regularly or not.

For this, they conduct tuitions for them in the seven tuition centres which has been organized by the organization (Mishra and Mishra, 2000).

Butterflies a Delhi based NGO established in 1988 for the sake of the street children. They primarily started their work with destitute street children and later on expanded it to include coolie boys of INA market, and the street vendors and shoe blacks at Cannaught Palace as also the street girl children. Butterflies has a non-formal education programme, recreational activities and a saving scheme. Those boys who were school drops-out were motivated to join the open school (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

CREDA, the Centre for Rural Education and Development Action was founded in 1981 and has been fighting child and bonded child labour. It has been conducting a wide range of activities in this area with active and widespread support from members of the local community. In 1992, when the IPEC and CLASP were initiated in India, CREDA was identified to implement some components of both (Mishra and Mishra, 2004).

Asha Niwas registered NGO initiated in 1976, work on the marginalized and exploited children of Chennai. The main objective of this includes: sponsorship and scholarship for education of the working children; continuing education for school drop-outs; non-formal education and vocational training for working children; shelter homes for working children; recreational activities; health care and health education programmes etc. (Annual Report, 1996).

The prime concept that is realized through this programme is retaining children in school and preventing them from becoming child workers.

Ruchika Social Service Wing was established in 1985-86 and targeted children who work on the platforms of the railway stations. The Bhubaneswar railway station and nine other nearby stations were targeted in the first phase of the project which lasted for eighteen months. Non-formal education centres were set up on the railway platform itself and the children working in and around the stations were encouraged to attend the classes that were held each day for only two or three hours. A three tier strategy was developed for school enrolment. The children, around 300, who were attending the non-formal education centre were to be shifted to full time day centres located near the railway station. So far as the impact of this programme is concerned, it was heartening to note that in the first year of project itself, sixty working children were withdrawn from the workforce and admitted to regular schools (Mishra, 2000).

As all of us knows that child labour is a complex issue, there is a need to tackle this problem very carefully. The problem of child labour can not be solved through a single approach. In spite of various efforts made by government of India, ILO-IPEC, UNICEF and NGOs, this social evil is still existent in our society. So, it became the responsibility of the every member of society that child must be eradicated from our society.

Chapter 7

Conclusions

Chapter – 7

CONCLUSION

According to Justice P.N. Bhagvati and Justice R.N. Pathak of Supreme Court, today's child is the foundation of the pillar on which tomorrow's nation is to be built, if the foundation is weak, the national structure is likely to collapse. So it is the obligation of every generation to bring up children who will be citizens of tomorrow in a proper way. Today's children will be leaders of tomorrow, who will hold the country's banner high and maintain the prestige of the nation. If child goes wrong for want of proper attention, training and guidance, it will indeed be a deficiency of the society and of the government of the day. The problem of child labour is indeed a negative factor. Every society, therefore must devote full attention to ensure that children are properly cared for and brought up in a proper atmosphere, where they can receive adequate training, education and guidance in order to see them achieving their rightful place in the society when they grow up.

Child labour is a multi-dimensional problem. With the study of surveyed literature it became obvious that child labour is not the only result of poverty. Causes vary across regions with respect to industries. It can be broadly said that child labour is the result of poverty, poor education system, prevalence of myths about child, labour, traditional use of child labour and so on.

Being an unorganized sector in nature, the workers of this industry suffer on the whole. In *dari (cotton carpet)* making industry two types of units

are found. One is house based unit and the second is factory based unit. A large number of employees fall into this second category, which is completely unorganized. Middle/supplier like the workers who mount thread on wheels, weavers and child labour for knotting and clipping.

The *dari (cotton carpet)* industry is organized in such a way that first of all the factory owners arrange the yarn from the yarn agents of Panipat, Kanpur, Maharashtra and Delhi. In export quality orders, factory owners use yarns from Maharashtra and Delhi, because the yarns from these two places is very fine. Not a single *dari (cotton carpet)* making industry has direct relations with the yarn mills. All of the yarn is purchased through the yarn agent. After purchasing of the yarn then the dyeing work starts. Yarn are dyed in the required colours; most of the dyeing of yarn done manually. Rafeeq Ansari's given Sitapur dyed their yarn with the machines is the only firm which uses advanced technology for dyes. All employers claim that they use Ozole free chemical dyes which are very light and do not harm the skin. They are compelled by their parties to use this chemical because skin of children or adult are in a direct contact with the *dari (cotton carpet)s*, which may result in skin diseases. So they are strictly instructed to use harmful chemicals and if they find that they have out used izole free chemical from the orders are cancelled. If this situation is repeated then exporters cancel the deal of such factory owners who cheat them forever.

After dyeing, the yarn is left to dry in shade and then distributed to weaver for weaving with prescribed size and design. The wages are already

fixed between them. A weaver normally weaves two-three *dari (cotton carpet)*s of normal size in a day. Middlemen come to the villages with the dyed yarn.

Weaving, knotting and clipping are done in home based units. Some people install their own looms, while some of them do weaving on rented rooms in the outer portion of the house. The houses are made of mud walls with thatched roofs. Above seventeen years of age, adult are involved in weaving. No evidence has been found that child labour is engaged in weaving; the main reason behind the non-involvement of children in weaving is that their legs are not long enough to reach the length, necessary for loom operation. Some suppliers install 10-15 rooms in a big hall, and they employ the weavers on a piece rate wages. After weaving the *dari (cotton carpet)*, the weavers return it to the supplier/middlemen. The middlemen/suppliers then distribute the woven *dari (cotton carpet)*s to the child labours for knotting and clipping.

For knotting and clipping 7-14 years aged children are engaged. Some children do knotting and clipping at home while most of them do it at the work place. Children usually tie the knots of about 15-20 rugs daily and earn between 10-14/Rs. in a day. After knotting children do clipping (finishing) of the *dari (cotton carpet)*s and get separate wages for it.

After weaving, knotting and clipping the suppliers/middlemen collect the *dari (cotton carpet)*s and return it to the factory. The employees of factory pack the *dari (cotton carpet)* according to the order. After packing the *dari (cotton carpet)*, the factory owners send it to the required destination either by bus, train, courier or even by air. The prepared rugs are sold in Durrie mandi (rug market) situated in the heart of the proper Sitapur. Saturday and Thursday

are the market days when the businessmen of Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Gujrat, Kashmir, Delhi and also from Uttar Pradesh have come to purchase the *dari* (cotton carpet). Sometimes rugs are also sold from the factory premises.

The socio-economic status of the factory owners are usually sound. Most of factory owners have annual turnovers of more than one crore. Some factory owners who supply their *dari* (cotton carpet)s in India as well as abroad had annual turnover above 5 crore.

Sitapur *dari* (cotton carpet) industry started in the year 1886. Initially, this industry started in Chilwara followed by Rasulpur, Kharabad and Laharpur. Earlier people used to buy the yarn either from Sitapur or other places. They themselves dyed the yarn with the help of family members then they put the yarn on bicycles and searched for weavers because in those days the business of rug making was not established like today. The weaver were a *dari* (cotton carpet) in more than a day. They knotted and clip the *dari* (cotton carpet)s themselves. After completing the rugs they used to sell the *dari* (cotton carpet)s on bicycles door to door.

After a long interval of time, some factory owners took loans from the bank, some mortgaged their property to establish their business then to establish their business. First of all they made contacts with parties from outside the district. They started receiving orders and when they completed the orders before time, they increased their manpower. Gradually, they got success and their economic status improved with the improvement in their economic status their lifestyle also changed, they started living in lavish homes, they become aware of education, because being illiterates they had faced lots of

problems in business dealing. So they started educating their children. At present their social and economic status has improved very much. Now, the *dari (cotton carpet)* making industry is established and the overall annual turnover of the *dari (cotton carpet)* making industry of the district is more than one hundred crore.

Children are engaged in this profession because social, economic, cultural and many more factors responsible for child labour. Majority of their parents are illiterate. Due to illiteracy parents are not aware about the merits of education and demerits of work. Education is very important to built the personality of an individual. It teaches the person to live according to social norms and values. Female education is quite low in comparison to male education. No female was found who had completed education upto primary level, few of them had recited only Quran. No male respondent were found who had completed their education upto primary level.

It is surprising that parents did not consider child labour bad, they don't think that child labour has any severe consequence on the health of their child. They used the additional income of their children to maintain their subsistence level. So their children must do some work to earn their livelihood, they say that to enter their children into labour force, they have trained their children to earn their livelihood.

Improper implementation of compulsory primary education encourages child labour although government makes a lot of effort to provide education to all, but it still is not properly implemented. The primary school doesn't provide such type of education which prepares children for brighter

future. Poor education system is very much responsible for child labour. Accessibility of schools, irrelevant and non-attractive school curriculum, poor infrastructure of the schools, lack of skilled teachers are some of the chief reasons which turn children away from joining the school. Also there is lots of appointment of untrained teachers, who are not capable of teaching the student in the light ways.

The schools don't have seating arrangements and the students sit on floors. Teachers hardly use blackboards for teaching, blackboard is to be used when any inspection occurs. The enrolment rate has increased due to annual distribution of Rs. 300/- and 3 kg of wheat every third month. To avail this facility, student must have 75 per cent attendance, but the fact is that neither students or teachers are interested in joining school, they only join the school at the time of distribution. Teachers cut the scholarship as well as wheat from the share of the student, but they did not raise any objection and they are not in a position to object. An 8-9 member family is a common phenomenon in rural areas, parents consider their children to be economic assets rather their responsibilities which they may use wherever they require; the reason being that resources are less than the minimum requirements of people. Economic status of the child labourers families are not good. Mixed profession is followed by the respondents of the district and they work on daily wages. The reason behind the existence of mixed profession is that, a few years back *dari* (cotton carpet) making was not done in remote areas of the district, but due to continuous raids of district magistrate, factory owners suffers a lot financially in the form of compensation, so they shifted their work form tehsils to blocks. Not all, but some of the people know the skill of weaving and knotting, and

have trained other people And now the *dari (cotton carpet)* making industry completely established in remote areas as well. The adults of the remote areas do a variety of jobs like farming, mechanical work, rickshaw pulling, daily wage labourer and general merchant schools and so on.

Low income throws the family into greater hardship, because low income families are deprived of the essential requirements of the family. A family with one earning member earns between 2300-2400/Rs. in a month and families with two earning members earn between 2400-2700/Rs. in a month. More than two earning members earn almost 3000/- Rs. in a month. Women are not found to work outside their homes, but some women do engage themselves in children embroidery. The head of the families are not engaged in any fixed job, where they can get salary so in this situation families are in need of their children's income. Adult unemployment causes child labour and this has replaced adult labour because it is cheap and children are easy to control. Since, adult members of the family are not able to earn more to meet the family expenditures, they are bound to engage their children into labour force to increase their income.

Cultural factor is also responsible for the prevalence of child labour to some extent. The children of those men who are engaged in weaving within their father's profession, but because of mixed profession majority of child labours are those whose father's are not in this profession. Prevalence of some myths also causes child labour like for eg. They have to work, because they are poor, the family need additional income for their survival; children are necessary to preserve the traditional art and craft and so on. It is a common

myth that children tie knots efficiently because of their nimble fingers, but the fact is that no evidence is to be found, that only children can tie the knots fast. It is said that child labour can't be abolished because of poverty but if the social organization, political leaders and every member of society gets determined and believe that it is their responsibility to implement legal provisions made for safeguarding their children to protect them from this social evil, then child labour can be abolished to a great extent. But it is seen that neither parents nor the state are willing to abolish child labour, parents justify child labour on the grounds that they need their children's income. In spite of telling them that they are doing the wrong thing by engaging their children in labour force, and it will have severe consequences on their children's health and future they don't believe that they are doing any wrong thing, which may cause any problem on their children health and future.

Children are mainly engaged in the unorganized sector. A bulk of child labour is found in this sector. Employees have no unions and because of this they are exploited by their employer in terms of wages and working hours. The people living in rural areas have no employment opportunities except to join this workforce. There is a lot of constitutional provision to prohibit children from work but they are not properly implemented labour official don't go to places for inspection where child labour concentration is high. Legal provision are enough to protect children from work if they are properly implemented.

It is imperative that every child should receive education, it being the basic right of every human being, despite the financial constraints involved in it. Though the constitution has made a provision for mandatory free primary

education, yet this gets neglected and children enter into the labour market. The Government of India has also been instrumentalised to give proper and due attention to the expansion of primary education, because the long term solution of this problem of child labour lies in education alone. Also, India has one of the largest programmes of primary education of child in the world.

Mid-day meals and scholarships, though attractive schemes, do not do much to enhance the literacy rate. A quota of 3 kg of wheat distributed to the students every third month in place of the mid-day meals is not a feasible solution for addressing the plan of child education. To avail this facility, and all such facilities meant to benefit these children, an attendance of 80 per cent is required through attendance records are met by the students, they do not help increase literacy rates, because many a times, these records are structured to meet the benefit of the students as well as the teachers. Hence, such schemes, though appealing in nature, do actually for very badly in practical terms.

Poor infrastructure of the school is very much responsible for the prevalence of child labour; though quite contrastingly, it has been found in some studies that despite financial constraints, a number of parents send their children to schools. Generally, schools are situated very far from residential areas. The structure is normally a one room/one verandah, or two room/one veranda, without toilets and drinking of water facilities. Students who asked leave to avail these facilities, hardly ever came back to attend the remaining time in school, for the day. For the lack of the drinking water and toilet facilities, a number of parents especially hold back their girls from school.

Most of the schools don't even have proper seating arrangements, with bare furniture, and children bring their jute mats to sit on. In the research study area, it was also found that there is a shortage of teachers. If a school has only one teacher, he/she teaches all the levels present in the school. When there are two teachers, the task is divided, but since the classes are taken at the same time, there is lack of general discipline in the school premises. Most of the time, the children receive no substantial education, because of firstly, the lack of interest and discipline among the students and secondly, the lack of interest among the teacher or teachers.

Several schools have untrained teachers, who lack the skills to teach students. Communication between the teacher and student is not managed by these unskilled teachers, and hence no improvement is made in the literacy rate. All these result in a loss of interest for education by the parent as well as the child.

Although the central and state government, social as well as non-governmental organizations have made various efforts to educate children upto the primary level, yet these efforts remain largely futile. Various legislative measures have also been taken to address the problem, but, it is evident from this research study that mere legal provisions cannot solve the problem of child labour and child illiteracy in so big a country as India. The ideal way would be to bring about social changes and emphasize the role that education can play in the creation of a better nation.

According to 1991 census Andhra Pradesh had the highest percentage (i.e. 14.3 per cent) of child labours. 90 per cent of child labour were employed

in rural areas. Pramila H. Bhargava a civil servant of 1988 batch visits the child labour prone areas of the state. She found that the condition of these child labour families was very miserable children do variety of job over there, like quarrying and mining, cotton cultivation, groundnut cultivation, cattle grazing, sericulture, silk weaving and livestock management. Children were exploited in terms of wages and working hours, because the average daily income of such families was less than 50/- Rs. They hardly afford a single meal per day. Because of economic constraints children were compelled to work in treacherous condition. She found after her visit that the child labours were illiterate or semi-literate.

She knows one thing that the abolition of child labour is possible only through education. She had started bridge courses, in which a student can pass two classes in a year, residential camps and the introduction of vocational training alongwith education. She convinced the parents to put their children into residential camps. Most of the children were malnourished, so routine check-ups of children were made by the doctors and nutritious diet provided to them to improve their health. After the school hours, vocational teachers give them vocational training, the aim of the vocational training is to become the children self-sufficient. Parents easily convinced to send their children into residential camp because of the idea of 'earn while you learn'.

Children learn craft according to their eligibility, the things are successfully sold in the market made by children. Parents got some amount from that money, so the parents who are least interested to send their children in residential camps were easily send their children to join the camps.

So Pramila H. Bhargava successfully achieved her goal to eradicate child labour from Andhra Pradesh, inspite of facing a lots of problem like lack of funds and space, convincing the parents that what they had lost to join their childrens childhood into labour force, obstacles created by the employers. Firstly she mobilized the community she brings the literate young ones of the area with them.

So, when child labour is eradicated to a large extent from Andhra Pradesh, then it could be eradicated from everywhere. Sitapur have also a large number of child labours, there is also a project run by National Child labour project, but this project is not working so effectively, timely inspection is made by the labour inspector, but no improvement were seen in the use of child labour.

People should be sensitized and mobilized about the ill effects of child labour, like Andhra Pradesh. Even parents did not consider child labour bad. There is a need of more study about the conditions of child labour because no sociological study have been made earlier, because of this the research area is not highlighted so much about the use of child labour. Non-governmental organization and social organization should come forward to abolish child labour, removes children from workplace and get admitted the children into school and also trained the children with vocational skills.

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Appendices

LEGISLATION AND CHILD LABOUR

Constitutional Provisions

Article 24

Prohibition of Employment of Children in Factories. No child below the age of fourteen years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or engaged in any other hazardous employment.

Article 29 (e)

“the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that Citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength”

Article 39(e) and (f)

Directive Principles of State Policy

The State shall, in particular, direct its policy, securing;

(e) That the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter a vocation unsuited to their age or strength.

(f) That children are given opportunity and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment.

The Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation)Act, 1986.

The Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986 was the culmination of efforts and ideas that emerged from the deliberations and recommendations of various committees and commissions on child labour. Significant among them are the National Commission on Labour (1966-69),

Gurupadaswamy Committee on Child Labour (1979) and Sanat Mehta Committee (1984). The basic objective of the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 is to ban the employment of children below the age of 14 years in factories, mines and hazardous employments and regulate the working conditions of children in other employment. The Act :

- i) bans the employment of children, i.e., those who have not completed their 14th year, in specified occupations and processes;
- ii) lays down a procedure to decide modifications to the schedule of banned occupations or processes;
- iii) regulates the conditions of work of children in employment where they are not prohibited from working;
- iv) lays down enhanced penalties for the employment of children in violation of the provisions of this Act, and other Acts which forbid the employment of children; and,
- v) brings about uniformity in the definition of “child” in related laws.

The Act prohibits employment of children below 14 years of age in occupations and processes listed in Part A and B of the Schedule to the Act. Through a Notification dated 26.5.1993, the working conditions of children have been regulated in all employments,, which are not prohibited under the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986. Through a Notification dated 10.5.2000, the Schedule has been modified by adding six more processes, thereby bringing the total to 13 occupations and 57 processes. Section 5 of the Child Labour (Prohibition & Regulation) Act. 1986 provides for the constitution of a Child Labour Technical Advisory Committee to advise the Central Government for the purpose of addition to the Schedule of the Act.

Prohibited Occupations and Processes

13 Occupations including :

1. Transport of passengers, goods or mails by railway
2. Cinder picking, cleaning of an ash pit or building operations in railway premises
3. Work in a catering establishment
4. Work relating to construction of a railway station
5. A Port Authority within the limits of any port
6. Work relating to selling of crackers and fire works in shops with temporary license
7. Abattoir/slaughter houses
8. Automobile workshops and garages
9. Foundries
- 10 Handling of toxic or inflammable substances
11. Handloom and power loom industry
12. Mines and collieries
13. Plastic units and fiber glass workshops
14. Employment of children as domestic workers or servants;
15. Employment of children in dhabas (road side eateries), restaurants, hotels, motels, tea shops, resorts, spas or other recreational centers

Notified on 10th July, 2006 and came into action 10th October, 2006 onwards.

57 Processes :

1. Bidi making
2. Carpet weaving
3. Cement manufacture
4. Cloth printing, dying and weaving

5. Manufacture of matches and fire works
6. Mica-cutting and splitting
7. Shellac manufacture
8. Soap manufacture
9. Tanning
10. Wool cleaning
11. Building and construction
12. Manufacturing of slate pencil and packing
13. Manufacture of products from agate
14. Process using toxic metals and substances
15. Hazardous processes as defined in section 2 (cb) and dangerous operations as notified in rules made under Section 87 of Factories Act, 1948.
16. Printing, as defined in section 2 of Factories Act, 1948.
17. Cashew and cashew nut descaling and processing
18. Soldering processes in electronic industry
19. Agarbatti manufacture
20. Automobile repair and maintenance
21. Brick Kiln sand roof tiles
22. Cotton ginning and processing
23. Detergent manufacture
24. Fabrication workshop
25. Gem-cutting and polishing
26. Handling of chromites and manganese
27. Jute textile manufacture
28. Lime kilns

29. Lock making
30. Manufacture process having exposure to lead
31. Manufacture of cement pipes, cement products, etc.
32. Manufacture of glass and glassware
33. Manufacture of dyes and dyes stuff
34. Handling of pesticides and insecticides
35. Handling of corrosive and toxic substances, metal cleaning and photo engraving
36. Burning coal or coal briquettes
37. Sports goods manufacture
38. Moulding and processing of fiberglass and plastic
39. Oil expelling and refinery
40. Paper making
41. Potteries and ceramic industry
42. Polishing, moulding, cutting, welding of brass goods
43. Processing in agriculture where tractors, threshing and harvesting machines are used
44. Saw mill-all processes
45. Sericulture processing
46. Manufacture of leather and leather products
47. Stone breaking and stone crushing
48. Manufacturing and handling of tobacco
49. Tyre making, repairing, re-treading and graphic benefaction
50. Utensils making, polishing and metal burning
51. Zari making
52. Electroplating

- 53. Graphite powdering and incidental processing
- 54. Grinding or glazing of metals
- 55. Diamond cutting and polishing
- 56. Extraction of slates from mines
- 57. Rag picking and scavenging

Other Acts

The Factories Act, 1948 replaced the Factories Act, 1881

- (i) The Factories Act, 1881 provided prohibition of employment of children up to the age of seven years. In 1891, the age was increased to nine years and further raised to fifteen years in 1948.
- (ii) The Act of 1881 provided prohibition of successive employment in two factories on the same day.
- (iii) The Act of 1881 provided maximum of nine working hours a day with at least four holidays in a month. In 1891, working hours were reduced to seven hours with prohibition of work at night between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. In 1911, prohibition of work at night was modified between 7 p.m. and 5.30 a.m. In 1922, working hours was further reduced to 6 hours and also added an interval of half an hour, if children are employed for more than $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours in a day.
- (iv) The Factory Act, 1881 was applicable to factories employing 100 or more persons. In 1922, it was brought down to establishments employing 20 or more persons with mechanical processes. Power was vested with local governments to exclude the application of provisions to premises employing 10 or more persons. In 1948, the Act was made applicable to factories employing 10 or more persons with the aid of power and for employing 20 or more persons without the aid of power.

- (v) In 1911, it provided prohibition of employment of children for work in certain dangerous processes. In 1922, it provided prohibition of employment of children below 18 and women in certain processes. In 1934, elaborate provisions were added for regulating the employment of children of various groups in the factories, such as;
 - (a) children under 12 and 15 years employment generally prohibited in certain areas;
 - (b) children under 12 and 15 years employment restricted to 5 hours a day in other areas;
 - (c) children between 15 and 17 years certain restrictions were imposed;
- (vi) In 1911, requirement of certificate of age and fitness was added. In 1922, provision for medical certificate and also certificate of re-examination for continuing work was made.
- (vii) In 1926, a provision was added for imposition of certain penalties on the parents and guardians for allowing their children to work in two separate factories on the same day.
- (viii) In 1954, a provision was added for prohibition of employment of persons under 17 years at night ("Night" was defined as a period of 12 consecutive hours and which included hours between 10 pm and 7 am).

1901 to 1952 – The Mines Act, 1952 replaced the Mines Act, 1901.

- (i) The Act of 1901 prohibited employment of children under 12 years. In 1923, age was raised to 13 years. In 1935, it was further raised to 15 years.

- (a) It further provided permission of employment of persons between 15 and 17 years only on production of certificate of physical fitness granted by a qualified medical practitioner.
- (b) Working time was restricted to maximum of 10 hours a day and 54 hours a week for work above the ground and 9 hours a day underground.

The Act of 1952 stipulated two conditions for underground work in a mine.

- (i) requirement to have completed 16 years of age; and
- (ii) requirement to obtain a certificate of physical fitness from a surgeon.

1931 : The Indian Ports (Amendment) Act 1931

Laid down 12 years as the minimum age that could be prescribed for handling goods in ports. The Report of the Royal Commission on Labour (1931) had an impact on legislation pertaining to child labour during the period between 1931 and 1949.

1932: The Tea Districts (Emigrant Labour) Act 1932

The Act was passed to check migration of labour to Assam. It provided that no under-age child is employed or allowed to migrate unless his/her parents or adults on whom the child was dependent, accompanied the child.

1933 : The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act 1933

Prohibited pledging of children i.e., taking of advances by parents and guardians in return for bonds, pledging the labour of their children a system akin to the bonded labour system. Royal Commission, in areas such as Amritasar, Allahabad, Madras, etc. and in carpet and bidi factories noticed this practice of pledging the labour of their children. The children in these situations were found to be working under extremely unsatisfactory conditions.

1938: The Employment of Children Act 1938

The Act was passed to implement the convention adopted by the 23rd session of ILO (1937), which inserted a special Article on India:

Children under the age of 13 years shall not be employed or work in the transport of passengers, or goods or mails by rail, or in the handling of goods at docks, quays or wharves, but excluding transport by hand. Children under the age of 15 years shall not be employed or work... in occupations to which this Article applies which are scheduled as dangerous or unhealthy by the competent authority.

This Act :

- (a) prohibited the employment of children under 15 years in occupations connected with transport of goods, passengers, mails on railways;
- (b) raised the minimum age for handling goods on docks from 12 to 14 years;
- (c) provided for the requirement of a certification of age;
- (d) In 1951, a provision was added for prohibition of the employment of the children between 15 and 17 years at night in railways and ports and also provided for requirement of maintaining register for children under 17 years;
- (e) In 1978, a provision was added for prohibition of employment of a child below 15 years in occupations in railway premises such as cinder picking or cleaning of ash pit or building operations, in catering establishment and in any other work which is carried on in close proximity to or between the railway lines.

1951 : The Plantations Labour Act 1951

Prohibited the employment of children less than 12 years in plantation.

1958 : The Merchant Shipping Act 1958

Prohibits children under 15, to be engaged to work in any capacity in any ship, except in certain specified cases.

1961: The Motor Transport Worker Act 1961

Prohibits the employment of children less than 15 years in any motor transport undertaking.,

1961 : The Apprentices Act 1961

Prohibits the apprenticeship/training of a person less than 14 years.

1966 : The Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act 1966

The Act prohibits:

- (i) the employment of children under 14 years in any industrial premises manufacturing beedis or cigars;
- (ii) persons between 14 and 18 years to work at night between 7 pm and 6 am.

1986: The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act 1986 (mentioned above in detail)**Other Programmes*****National Child Labour Projects***

The National Child Labour Projects (NCLP) were launched in 1988, in areas of high concentration of child labour. NCLPs are area specific, time bound, where priority is given to the withdrawal and rehabilitation of children engaged in hazardous occupations.

The strategy of NCLP is to implement model programmes consisting of key elements such as :

- Stepping up the enforcement of the prohibition of child labour

- Providing employment to parents of children
- Expanding formal and non-formal education
- Promoting school enrolment through various incentive such as payment of stipend
- Raising public awareness, survey and evaluation

Presently 249 National Child Labour Projects are running in 20 states of India such as Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chattisgarh, Gujrat, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orrisa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamilnadu, Uttar Pradesh, Uttranchal, West Bengal.

Appendix - B**SUPREME COURT DIRECTIONS ON CHILD LABOUR**

The Supreme court of India, in its judgement dated 10th December, 1996 in Writ Petition (Civil) Number 465/1986, has given certain directions regarding the manner in which children working in the hazardous occupations are to be withdrawn from work and rehabilitated, and the manner in which the working conditions of children working in non-hazardous occupations are to be regulated and improved. The judgement of the Supreme Court envisages:

- (a) Simultaneous action in all districts of the country;
- (b) Survey for identification of working children (to be completed by June 10, 1997).
- (c) Withdrawal of children working in hazardous industries and ensuring their education in appropriate institutions;
- (d) Contribution of Rs. 20,000 per child to be paid by the offending employers of children to welfare fund to be established for this purpose;
- (e) Employment to one adult member of the family of the child so withdrawn from work, and if that is not possible, a contribution of Rs. 5,000 to the welfare fund to be made by the State Government;
- (f) Financial assistance to the families of the children so withdrawn to be paid out of the interest earnings on the corpus of Rs.20,000/25,000 deposited in the welfare fund as long as the child is actually sent to the schools;
- (g) Regulating hours of work for children working in non hazardous occupations so that their working hours do not exceed six hours per day

and education for at least two hours is ensured. The entire expenditure on education is to be borne by the concerned employer;

- (h)** Planning and preparedness on the part of Central and State Governments in terms of strengthening of the existing administrative/regulatory /enforcement frame-work (covering cost of additional manpower, training, mobility, computerization etc.) implying additional requirement of funds.